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System. Seeley

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THE COMMON-SCHOOL SYSTEM OF GERMANY

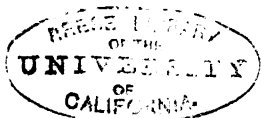
AND ITS

LESSONS TO AMERICA.

BY .

LEVI SEELEY, Ph.D.,

AUTHOR OF "THE AMERICAN PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM AND ITS NEEDS
FROM THE GERMAN STANDPOINT," "THE GRUBE METHOD,"
"THE GRUBE IDEA"; ONE OF THE TRANSLATORS OF
LANGE'S "APPERCEPTION"; ETC.



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1896.

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"The ultimate end of education is so to develop and perfect all the powers of man as to reach thereby the highest morality attainable."

NIRMEYER.

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E.T

PREFACE.

THE object of this book is twofold: first, to give an accurate picture of the German school system, especially that of Prussia, which was foremost in establishing a school system thorough in all respects; and second, to draw lessons from the same which can be applied in the American schools and for the improvement of her school systems. In order to obtain reliable information concerning the German schools it became necessary to examine a vast literature, as there is no single book in German giving a complete picture of the school system, and this would still leave many questions unsettled to the foreign student. Therefore it became necessary to study the subject on the ground where answers and explanations could be obtained from school officials and teachers. This study began twelve years ago, and four of these years have been spent in Germany. Access to the public libraries, and also to the private libraries of school men, together with the advice and assistance of many eminent teachers, have been of utmost value to me in securing correct data and in reaching absolute facts.

Not less important was the actual inspection of schools, and this has been made in all parts of Germany; institutions of all kinds have been visited, from the school in the lonely village, where perhaps a single teacher instructs a

hundred children, to the most complete school system of the largest city, and from the common school to the gymnasium and university. Uniform courtesy has ever been shown, and the school officials and teachers have never failed to give me an opportunity not only to see actual work, but also to obtain correct information concerning the schools.

In regard to the second motive, that of suggesting reforms in the American schools, I trust no one will think that I believe in bodily transporting the German school system to American soil. There are certain reforms needed, and the sooner we recognize the fact and set about their introduction, the better for our schools and for the cause of education. We should be ready to learn from any and every source; and if Germany has anything good that we can apply, prejudice should not prevent its application. That Germany has some good things entirely applicable to our conditions, I believe these pages will show. The object is not to improve the German schools, therefore their defects—and they have serious defects—will not be given prominence.

I do not expect that all American educators will agree with me in the manner of applying the lessons from Germany, nor in the manner of securing the reforms, though all will agree that such reforms are necessary. Experience in schools of all kinds in America leads me to believe that my plan is practicable. But if these suggestions shall awaken discussion and criticism, and thereby lead somebody else to propose a better plan which may be adopted, my end will be reached. The main end is the reforms sought, and if that end is reached I shall be satisfied.

I wish hereby to express my appreciation of most valuable assistance from the following gentlemen: Dr. Bosse, Minister of Education; Herr von Weyrauch, under-Secretary of State; Geheimrat Prof. Bertram, superintendent

of the common schools of Berlin; Rektors Bäblich, Lincke, Brunslow, Schmidt, and Bellardi, principals of Berlin schools; and especially from Herr Robert Siegert, instructor of drawing in the Royal Art School, Berlin. Believing that we have most to learn from the common schools of Germany, the discussion is limited to them.

LEVI SEERLEY.

**STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Trenton, N. J., Jan., 1896.**

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SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF GERMANY.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

THE German common schools have long been celebrated for their efficiency and thoroughness. They have steadily improved from the time of their organization until the present, and although other nations have also improved their school systems, Germany, it is conceded, still continues in the lead. The three most important lessons taught the world by Germany are: 1, that all teachers must be professionally trained and therefore have a professional standing; 2, that they must receive permanent appointments; and 3, that children of lawful school age must attend school every day of the year that it is in session, the parents being held accountable for such attendance.

Three most important lessons from Germany.

All of these propositions are practically and successfully worked out in Germany, as later pages will show. Almost as successfully have the same ideas been copied by Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Austria, and other countries. Austria turned the crushing defeat of Sadowa in 1866 into better

In other lands.

than victory in that it opened her eyes to the necessity of better schools, and led to the adoption practically of the school system of Prussia. Even France, after her humiliation of 1870, learned the lesson from Germany that to have better soldiers she must have better schools, and began immediately to establish a school system in some respects better than that of her enemy, which is having wonderful effect upon the nation. America too has been benefited by a study of the German schools, and by the adoption of many ideas from them. The teachings of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Diesterweg, Francke, and Herbart, have exerted a wide influence, and are continuing to do so. But we fully believe that far more yet remains for us to learn which can be applied successfully to our conditions and will prove a great blessing to our land.

The two great things that America needs in her school system are: 1, professionally trained teachers given fixed places as soon as they have fulfilled rigid requirements as to fitness; and 2, compulsory education, for every day the school is in session, for not less than seven years.

Two great things America needs.

The question of professionally trained teachers is of far more importance than that of methods, as a properly trained teacher will settle the question of methods to suit his own individuality after having learned the principles which underlie all methods. The appointment for indefinite periods would largely remove the schools from politics, as the few appointments to be made from year to year would leave comparatively little patronage for the politician to distribute and would therefore destroy his baneful influence.

The second great need is compulsory education, not an abortive effort to secure attendance for a quarter or a half of the school year, but for all of the year. For a quarter of a century efforts have been made in different States of

the Union to secure regular school attendance, but not with anything like complete success. Failure has arisen from the incompleteness in the requirements of laws passed. France has adopted within ten years both of the above requirements, and her schools have attained a great degree of efficiency, her teachers are all trained and her children all attend school regularly, a result which after half a century of effort we have not yet reached.

Surely the conditions in the Republic of the **France.** United States are not less favorable nor the government less strong than in the Republic of France! Both of the above questions are discussed at length in later chapters and stress laid upon their importance.

In order to understand the German school system, it is necessary that its historical development should be studied. This history is fruitful of suggestions. They show not alone the difficulties that had to be overcome, the influences that were set at work, and the great value of the schools to the nation; they also disclose the way in which other nations may improve their school systems and through them assure their intellectual and material prosperity. Others may thus learn from the experience of Germany, avoiding the **Value of a study of the history of German education.**

errors she has made and profiting by her successes. The study of her school government, of her course of study, of her teachers and the manner of training them, of the schools themselves and the end they seek to reach, will afford abundant material for thought, awaken discussion, and stimulate earnest effort for educational advancement. Activity in these directions can only result in good. We possess a great advantage over Germany in that we are not bound by unbending regulations, controlled by unprogressive conservatism, and loaded down with traditions which reach far **Our advantage over Germany.** back into the past. On the other hand new ideas are gladly

welcomed by us no matter where they come from, and there is the greatest freedom to test their value and apply them in the schools. True, many things have proven worthless upon trial, and others will also prove so; but out of this repeated effort to find a better way and to discover the best, some good will come, and principles will be established.

The chemist must make many experiments before he reaches a discovery; an Edison discovers the principle of the phonograph, or the application of electricity for lighting purposes, only after many trials. **Truth discovered after search.** And so, out of many experiments, some of which of course will miscarry, new educational principles, new methods of instruction will be discovered. It only remains that this experimentation shall be intelligently and wisely directed, and when new truths are discovered we must hold fast to them. And the truths that others have discovered, whether it be a Comenius, a Rousseau, a Pestalozzi, a Herbert Spencer, or a Herbart, should be received and applied by us. Edison does not stop to discover over again what Franklin discovered a century ago, but, accepting the facts established, he goes from these into new fields of discovery which were far beyond Franklin's horizon. So it is with educational questions.

It is for us to accept the lessons already learned and proved by German educators, and go out into the wider fields which stretch out invitingly before us. We have but entered the borders of the promised land, and the very freedom above indicated makes America the most promising land in the world for pedagogical enterprise and discovery. What is not good or applicable may be discarded, but that which is good and applicable should be received, no matter where it comes from or who discovered it.

CHAPTER II.

EARLY HISTORY.

LIKE all barbaric and semi-barbaric races, the early Germans had but little need of schooling other than training in bearing arms, and in the use of their rude implements of agriculture. But the introduction of Christianity was followed by efforts to bestow Christian instruction. Contact with the Romans also had shown the Germans the need of culture, especially to the higher classes, and awakened a desire for it, so that founding of schools was begun at an early date.

Primitive
schools.

In 584 A.D. Chlotar II. founded a court school, where sons of nobles were taught grammar, rhetoric, dialectics, and jurisprudence.

First
court school
584 A.D.

Wherever the missionaries planted the cloister, schools were usually connected with them. While it is true that these religious institutions limited their instruction chiefly to the nobility and to such as were dedicated to the sacred office, and while the world thanks them for the collection and preservation of valuable manuscripts, yet their maintenance of schools, and their efforts in behalf of learning during the long dark period of the Middle Ages, demands the gratitude of the educator.

Boniface, the apostle of Christianity to Germany, founded schools in the cloisters of Würzburg, Buraberg in Hessen, Eichstädt, Erfurt, Fulda, and other places, in the eighth century. Charlemagne, while great in history as a soldier and statesman, must not be forgotten in the history of German education. He used

Early
efforts.

every opportunity for the improvement of his own mind. He surrounded himself with the most learned men of his own vast empire, and gathered to his side the most learned of other countries, among others, Alcuin, an Englishman, who did much to promote education. Nor did he stop with his own personal education, but sought first to improve the knowledge of the ecclesiastics. He required that every priest should be able to write, sing, read, and reckon—much less than is now required of every child—and also that the priests should be examined by the bishops in these subjects, as well as in their knowledge of the Holy Scriptures.

Though this seems like a very limited requirement for those who were the leaders of the people in educational as well as in spiritual matters, the dense ignorance of the time must not be forgotten; the above requirement was found to be all that could be attained at that time. It was the first general attempt for the education of a class of people, and may therefore be called the beginning of education in Germany.

Nor did this great emperor stop with the education of the ecclesiastics. He followed this up by the religious instruction of his people in their mother-tongue, and showed remarkable educational activity in many directions. He founded schools for the sons of members of his court, and required that they be compelled to attend them. This is the first instance of compulsory education on record in Europe.

In the schools thus founded girls had no part whatever. It was considered that their education was complete if they understood spinning, weaving, and housekeeping. Yet Charlemagne was far in advance of his age in believing in the possibility of the education of women, inasmuch as he required his daughters to learn the Latin and Greek languages.

**First
compulsory
education
in Europe.**

**Education
of women.**

The active interest which this great man took in the education of his subjects marks him as one of the greatest of statesmen, as well as one of the greatest warriors, and also as one of the ablest to grapple with the question of education that has ever lived. His glory as an educator is the more enhanced when we remember the dark and densely ignorant period in which he lived.

The crusades marked a new epoch in the development of education in Germany. The new impulse given to commerce by the moving of armies, the destruction of feudalism and the consequent development of citizenship, the rapid increase in wealth, the founding of many churches, and the remarkable activity of the times incited by the crusades, awoke a desire for and established a need of schools. Accordingly in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries many schools were founded, and the first by the state. In 1262 schools were organized at Lübeck under the direction of the city authorities. Hamburg, Breslau, Rostock, Stettin, Leipzig, Brunswick, and other cities followed. Previous to this the Church had taken exclusive charge of education. The chief work of these schools was to teach reading and writing, especially for commercial purposes.

**Influence
of the
crusades.**

**First
state schools
at Lübeck.**

The teachers were generally of very limited knowledge. In general they were expelled monks, worthless students, worn-out preachers, and adventurers of various sorts. Their pay was from \$8 to \$15 a year, but besides this they received some presents. In some cases the schoolmaster received a can of beer and some candles every evening, in order, it was said, that he might be the more diligent. This was the condition of things at the end of the fifteenth century. But little had been done; but yet it was a beginning, and a preparation for the founding of that system of education which has made Germany so justly celebrated.

The period of the Reformation had now arrived; a wonderful awakening from the slumber of the ages was witnessed; the revival in religion, in art, in science, and learning, quite naturally worked a great influence upon the schools and upon the cause of general education. Luther early recognized the necessity of education, not simply of the priests, but also of the great masses, and the great reformer may be said to be not simply the leader of the Reformation, the founder of the German language (by his translation of the Holy Scriptures into German), but also the father of the German school system. Not blind acquiescence in the decrees of the Church, but an earnest and intelligent search of the truth was the key-note of his teaching. This led him to take as his watchword, "Make the people acquainted with the word of God." That they might accomplish this he translated it into their mother-tongue, and preached it in their own language.

This elevated the importance of the individual, and led him to think for himself, and to give thoughtful and intelligent obedience to personal conscience, to strive to work out his own salvation according to the light obtainable. This was the beginning of that great movement in the development of individual power, individual conscience, individual activity, and self-reliance among mankind, so manifest in these last years of the world's history.

But possession of the Scriptures was of little account without the ability to read. So Luther became the greatest pedagogue of his time. He deplored the condition of the schools, and early raised his voice for their radical improvement. In his own person he was made to experience the evil practices in the schools, having been whipped thirteen times in a single day, without having broken any especial rule. He called

**Luther as
pedagogue.**

the schools "martyr-chambers." Believing most earnestly that the world was on the threshold of a wonderful development, he held that the glory and success of the future were dependent upon the education of the youth. One of his fundamental principles was that education must begin in the family. He says, "Believe me, it is far more important that you have great care in properly training your children than that you seek indulgences, say **Family** many prayers, go much to church, or make **training** many vows." But he was particular with reference to the kind of training. Believing that "the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom," he taught, "See to it that your children above all things are instructed in divine things, that you first dedicate them to God and then to worldly matters."

Luther did the German nation in two especial directions great service with reference to training children, which, aside from his work as reformer, make him the greatest benefactor to that people that has ever lived. He held that children must be taught to use their hands, to work; girls in all manner of housework, boys in some useful trade. Secondly, he taught the duty of the government to compel the parents to send their children to school, even if it became necessary to assist **Duty of state to support schools.** them from public funds. Well has Germany learned and practised both of these teachings these four centuries, until at present every child of high or low degree is expected to learn to do some useful employment, and until Germany has a most thorough and effective system of compulsory education. By word and deed Luther honored the schoolmaster and his office. He says, "The true and diligent schoolmaster can never be sufficiently rewarded, nor can he ever be paid with money for his great services."

Luther urged that children be taught reading, writing,

mathematics, geography, history and Latin, but above all he insisted that knowledge of the Holy Scriptures is the most important of all. He even went so far as to advise that a child should never be sent to a school where the Scriptures did not control.

Luther's pedagogical views exert to-day a wider influence upon the schools of Germany than those of any other man that has yet lived. Let us recall some of these benefits.

1. He taught that every school teacher must be able to sing, thereby being capable of leading his pupils in a pleasant form of recreation, and also utilize **Luther's service to the schools.** the music as an important factor in instruction.

It is now required of every teacher not only that he must be able to sing, but also to play on one or more musical instruments.

2. The study of the Bible he believed the most important of all school subjects. This has become a fundamental thought of German pedagogics.

3. He insisted that the teacher should be respected and that he could not be paid with money; the universal respect accorded school teachers in Germany comes from this maxim of Luther's.

4. He advocated compulsory education. This is so thoroughly established that no one thinks it could be otherwise, and absence from school upon any day of the year when the school is in session, without proper cause, is extremely rare.

5. He taught that children must be trained in accordance with Nature's laws, and in this direction he began a reform in the schools which has worked wonderful results.

Besides Luther, Melancthon, Bugenhagen, Sturm, Zwingli, Calvin and other fathers of the Reformation contributed to the cause of education, and each **Other educators.** recognized the importance of schools as a means of carrying out the reforms which had been instituted.

Accordingly many of the schools were supported by and closely connected with the churches.

The wages of teachers in the sixteenth century were certainly not high from any standpoint. For example, in Brunswick the chief teacher received from fifty to sixty dollars a year. Besides this he received Wages of teachers. about twenty-five cents a year from each pupil and received presents from the community and a small amount of perquisites for service in the Church, bringing the total amount up to about one hundred dollars a year.

The discipline was very strict, the rod being often applied till blood flowed.

The schoolmaster, it is said, took occasion to teach grammar during the administration of castigation, as follows:

Nominative..... Lie down!
 Genitive..... Bend yourself!
 Dative..... Over the bench!
 Accusative..... Don't give me too much!
 Vocative..... It hurts!
 Ablative..... Don't do it again!

In one province the teachers were allowed to use the rod on the body, but were forbidden to strike the head, slap the mouth, pull hair, or box the ears.

While Luther by his translation of the Bible, and by many works in German, gave his people a language, Valen-
 tine Ickelsamer, a follower and cotemporary First German Grammar.
 of Luther, issued the first German grammar, which included a method of reading. It is very interesting to note that this method was phonic, and that the idea conveyed by the word must be given before the word is taught. Thus one of the most strongly advocated pedagogical axioms of the present day, instead of being new, has the sanction of more than three centuries upon it.

CHAPTER III.

BEGINNINGS OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

AMONG the many men who shaped educational impulses and who assisted in laying the foundation of the German school system, must be mentioned Amos Comenius, who was born in 1592, and died in 1681. During his long life of ninety years he never ceased to be interested in the education of the young. As a writer and teacher he made a profound impression, not alone upon the authorities, but also upon thinkers of all classes. Without discussing his eminent work as a writer and teacher in other fields, it is interesting to note here his influence in moulding school systems.

He advocated four kinds of school: 1. The *mother school*, covering the first six years of the child's life. In this important period especial attention should be given to physical growth, and to the development of all the senses, and a comprehension of the nearby objects. 2. The *German school*, commencing at the sixth year, in which all the children without exception were to be trained. Such a school must be sustained in every community. Its course included reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic according to the needs of ordinary life, the Bible and catechism, hymns and texts, some geography, and knowledge of some trade or business, 3. The *Latin school*, planned for advanced pupils, who were to take the university course. 4. The *University*, which was to be open to all classes who have completed the Latin school.

Kinds of
schools
advocated by
Comenius.

This substantially marks the present division of schools in the German system, and is of historical importance as one of the factors which prepared the way for later systems. Corresponding with the mother school is the *Kindergarten*, with the German school is the *Volksschule*, with the Latin school the *gymnasium*, and with the university the present *university*.

Not only the rich and noble were to have the advantage of schools, but the poor and the lowly, girls as well as boys. Comenius taught that education without morality and the fear of God is vain and tends to unhappiness. He gave to the German school system this thought which has become the corner-stone of German pedagogics. He sought to make the world better by making the schools better, and left an impression which is felt and appreciated more and more throughout Germany and throughout the world, as intelligence increases and mankind grows better.

Chief corner-stone.

Although Germany was torn during the seventeenth century with terrible wars, which left the country poor and desolate, and cost thousands of lives and immense treasure, the people did not lose their interest in the education of their children.

The seventeenth century.

During this dark period, wise school laws were enacted and put in force, which are still retained as fundamental principles in the present school system of Germany, and which have been incorporated into the school systems of nearly every civilized country of the globe.

Among other laws may be mentioned those bearing upon school attendance, which have been so thoroughly developed and which have made Germany famous throughout the world. As early as 1619 it was decreed in Weimar that all children, boys as well as girls, should be kept at school at least from the sixth till the twelfth year. This was the first

First compulsory education for all classes.

efficient compulsory education law on record which reached all classes of children. The teachers, however, were ignorant and unqualified, the schools were crude, the requirements of the schools small. The chief purpose of the schools was to give the children such instruction as would fit them to better understand their duty to God and to the Church. But in spite of all drawbacks, the schools exerted a great influence, and this marks the brightest sign in the midst of the demoralization of this terrible period.

Not alone Weimar, but also Würtemberg, Hessen-Darmstadt, Mecklenburg, Holstein, Hessen-Cassel, and other places, took active interest in the education of the children. They organized schools, appointed teachers, adopted certain regulations, thereby making a good beginning in the work of education.

Among the rulers of German provinces, no one deserves higher mention as an educator than Duke Ernst the Pious of Gotha. He came to the throne of this small dukedom in 1640 and began immediately to improve the schools. In 1642 he adopted a new school regulation which was remarkable for its intelligence and scope and which was a century in advance of the time. It was intended to reach every boy and girl in the province. It required every child to enter school after the completion of his fifth year, and to remain in school until he could read his mother tongue, had mastered Luther's catechism, and was well grounded in reckoning, writing, and church songs. The reception of children in the school took place but once a year. Instruction was given each week-day, three hours in the forenoon and three hours in the afternoon, except Wednesday and Saturday afternoons, which were free. A vacation of six weeks was given during harvest, but such children as were not employed were to attend school two hours a day for review. A

**Duke Ernst
of Gotha.**

child must be present every day, and only sickness could excuse his absence from school. The parent was made answerable for the child's attendance, and for neglect in this matter the parent was fined a small sum for first offense and an increased fine for repetition. Thus early was laid down a principle which Germany still holds to, having felt its beneficent results, and which is one secret of the success of her educational system. The time of examinations was carefully fixed, the course of study marked out, the schools divided into grades, and many methods of instruction indicated.

In this small province was thus worked out in the 17th century the first universal and practical experiment of compulsory education for a whole people. It was quite thoroughly carried out, until the Thirty Years' War had decimated the population by the terrible sacrifice of human life, impoverished the remaining inhabitants of Germany, and left them hopeless and crushed. In spite of the constant efforts of Ernst and his successors, the law cannot be said to have been well carried out in Gotha until 1726. Even after that, discharged soldiers and degraded craftsmen who could read and write, and who possessed some little knowledge of music, continued to hold the office of teachers because there was not a sufficient supply of trained teachers.

In the meantime other provinces had surpassed Gotha in educational zeal.

WÜRTENBERG began in 1649 the slow development of its school system by recognizing the duty of parents to keep their children in school, and every few years thereafter more and more stringent requirements were added to the law, until at the end of the century attendance at school was tolerably regular. Not until 1787, however, nearly a century and a half later, was it definitely fixed that every child between

Effect of the
Thirty Years' War.

Early schools
of Württemberg.

six and fourteen years of age must attend school every day of the year, and this law was carried out with stringency and success in the cities. It was probably twenty years more before it was enforced in the country districts. School hours, terms of school, courses of study, and other matters belonging to school organization were arranged, and the schools were placed on a substantial basis.

Early schools of Saxony. SAXONY had a law in 1724 requiring at least four hours of schooling per week, and it was specified expressly *that girls also should receive instruction*. But not until 1772 was much heed given to the subject, when a law was passed which required all children from the end of their fifth year until they were fourteen years of age to attend school every day in winter as well as in summer, and parents were made subject to punishment for non-compliance. In every district the church authorities were required to keep the records of births, and of all children between the ages of six and fourteen, so that there was no opportunity for parents to deceive, and keep their children out of school.

Early schools in Prussia. But to PRUSSIA belongs the honor of being the first great nation to carry out successfully and continuously the principle of compulsory education. In 1648 it was ordered that parents keep their children regularly at school; but not till 1736, nearly one hundred years later, was there a rigid law on the subject. This law required attendance of all children from six to twelve years of age. In 1763 the time of required attendance was extended to the fourteenth year. Various changes were made from time to time, strengthening the weak places in the law until it has become practically perfect in its workings, and until absence from school by those subject to the requirements of the law is almost unknown. The firmness and efficiency with which Prussia has carried out

Prussia first to make complete success of the compulsory law.

the compulsory education laws has had a good effect, not alone on other German provinces, but also on other nations of the world. We shall study in a later chapter the particulars of the compulsory law and its workings in Prussia.

CHAPTER IV.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE VOLKSSCHULE.

It is generally conceded that the German Volksschule (common school) dates its real beginning with the Reformation. We have already seen that Luther regarded the education of the common people with greatest interest, that he urged the establishment of schools for all children, and that parents be required to keep their children regularly at school. He also laid down certain pedagogical principles which have never lost their practical force in Germany to this day, and are taught as sound principles. It was this spirit which led him to give his countrymen the Bible in their own tongue in such simple and comprehensible language that all could understand. His preaching, his teaching, and his writings all sought not alone the salvation of his people, but their education.

But it must not be imagined that a school system in modern sense was marked out in Luther's teachings, or was even comprehended in his thought. That system is the growth of centuries, and it has been perfected by experiment and correction of mistakes, by careful study on the part of great rulers, wise statesmen, and eminent educators, and by the slow progress of national elevation, and national appreciation of the need of education.

We will trace some of the steps of this growth. The great lack of sufficient numbers of educated men to fill the positions of public officials led the state to feel the want of schools. At the same time it was recognized that the com-

mon people deserved instruction in evangelical doctrines, as the least that Church and state had a right to give. The Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments, and explanation of them, and Luther's catechism formed the kernel of the first school-book, from which reading, writing and singing were taught. The people were densely ignorant, and it was sought to give them some knowledge of those things which are firstly essential. The state joined with the Church in the support of such schools. Great difficulties constantly stood in the way of success. Teachers were illy prepared and badly paid, while parents neglected or refused to keep their children at school.

The first school-book for reading, etc.

To study the development of the German school system historically, would require a discussion of the systems of each of the provinces, which, though they differ in minor details, agree in essentials. We will therefore limit our discussion to the system of Prussia, which will sufficiently illustrate all the others. Prussia, as the largest and most important kingdom of the German Empire, and containing about three-fifths of the population, may be expected to take the lead in educational matters. The other provinces have followed the general policy of Prussia, therefore a description of the Prussian system will show the general trend of all and suffice to give a good idea of education throughout Germany. While the details of the management of schools may slightly differ in the different German states, in the great pedagogical questions that agitate the minds of educators, and that make for the general development of the masses, provincial lines are not drawn, but all who speak the German tongue, think and write and speak for the Fatherland as one people having one general educational purpose. Thus the number of school years required, the course of study, compulsory education, the training of

General unity of German states in education.

teachers and the qualification of the same, pensions, increase of salaries dependent upon length of service, are all conditions which are about the same everywhere throughout the German Empire. Pupils going from one state to another are thus readily admitted to a corresponding class in the new home without loss of time or break in the continuity of their school work. This holds good not simply for the lower schools, but also for students of the high schools, the *Gymnasia*,* *Realschulen* and universities, work in each German institution being fully recognized in every other like institution. This mutual recognition extends also to teachers who have been trained in the schools or seminaries of one state and seek positions in another state. It will readily appear that this general unity is of vast account in furthering the interests of education.

We may therefore limit our study to the common schools of Prussia, thereby giving a picture to American educators that is full of suggestion, and will, we trust, bear abundant fruit in the New World.

The Prussian school system has long been celebrated for its efficiency. It has exerted its influence over every province and every district, over every city and every hamlet in the kingdom of Prussia. More than this, it has extended its influence over all other parts of Germany and over many of the neighboring European states, while even school systems beyond the oceans have been somewhat shaped

Influence and efficiency of the Prussian school system.

*As the *Gymnasium* and *Real* school have no exact parallel in American institutions, we shall use the German names to denominate them throughout this book. The *Gymnasium* is a school with a nine years' course, in which especial attention is given to the classics. It graduates its pupils at about 20, and the training is generally recognized to be equal to that necessary to enter the junior class of one of our first-class colleges. The position of the *Real* school is not so thoroughly defined as that of the *Gymnasium*. In general it gives of attention to the modern languages and the sciences.

thereby. Therefore it must be of highest interest to study the development of this system.

The first step towards the foundation of the Prussian school system was taken by Elector Joachim II., who ruled those provinces which formed the nucleus of the present Kingdom of Prussia. In 1540 he ordered that, as the schools had for some time been deteriorating in every city and town, they should be reorganized, reformed, and improved. Again, in 1573 another decree was made requiring certain visitation and oversight on the part of the Church. Indeed, in earlier times the direction of schools was almost entirely in the hands of the Church; hence orders concerning schools were given to the Church and carried out by her. The ruler often carried out wishes expressed by the ecclesiastical bodies. These two decrees formed the nucleus around which whatever of school laws relating to general education for nearly two hundred years gathered.

Great difficulties existed which required centuries to adjust. The people did not speak one language nor have one faith. There were Catholics and Protestants, Jews and Christians. This increased the difficulty, inasmuch as the conduct of the schools was under church authority. The people were poor, and the means at the command of the Church were exceedingly limited. Ignorance and lack of interest on the part of high and low made the task unpromising and discouraging. And yet the province was blessed with energetic and intelligent rulers, who did not abandon the work amid its discouragements. Schools were for a long time organized only in the cities. In the villages the catechism was recited to the church sexton, whose only duty was to see that the children had memorized it word for word. It was not until after the Thirty Years' War that any attempt was made to include villages and country people in a school system. It was ordered in

1662 that schools be organized in villages as well as in cities as far as possible. But this was by no means general, Brandenburg being the first province in which the germ of a general school system was planted.

Province of Brandenburg. Other provinces followed. In 1687 the state

began to consider the schools not simply church organizations, but as belonging to the state. Many other provinces of Prussia were slow to move in the matter of schools. The teacher still continued to be a kind of pastor's assistant, it being recorded that "a teacher might receive a present from the church treasury provided he did not work in opposition to the pastor." He was to teach reading, writing, reckoning, and the catechism, and was to collect his pay from his pupils. A great difficulty arose from the lack of competent teachers. Candidates

Poor teachers. for the ministry took up teaching temporarily while preparing for their life-work. Invalid soldiers, discharged servants of gentlemen, and men worthless for other pursuits were appointed teachers, especially in the country schools.

It may be said to the glory of Frederick William I. and his greater son, Frederick the Great, that their reigns gave Germany a school system. The former of these sovereigns, while noted for his parsimony, and for being an enemy to

Work of Frederick William I. science except where it was of some evident practical use, yet was liberal towards schools.

He established four hundred schools among the common people with money saved from the expenditures of the royal household as one of the first measures of his reign, and before the close of his reign he had established eighteen hundred such schools. He could drive professors from their chairs and from his kingdom because they differed from him in faith, but he loved the common people and sought to elevate them by the most effective measure, namely, by means of education.*

* Bayard Taylor's *Hist. of Germany*, p. 441.

His son, Frederick the Great, after devoting the earlier years of his reign to war, also turned his attention to the education of his subjects. He was far broader and more liberal in his views than his father and accomplished far more. We shall discuss his work more particularly farther on. Both of these kings were excellent organizers, and both recognized the necessity of general culture of a people in order to secure stability of government. They organized schools in great numbers, but better than this, they founded institutions for training teachers.

General culture necessary to stable government.

The first general school law for the Prussian monarchy was issued in 1713. This applied to all institutions of learning. Francke established his celebrated institutions (Stiftungen) at Halle, and Prussia received her first trained professional instructors.* Other royal decrees followed, perfecting the school laws and widening their influence. A teachers' seminary was established in 1735 in Stettin by private means. This was the first institution established exclusively for the training of teachers. Comenius had taught one hundred years before the necessity of trained teachers, and from him comes undoubtedly the first suggestion of a normal school.

First general school law in Prussia.

Duke Ernst of Gotha, whose work for the education of his people we have already described (page 22), directed that his successor should establish institutions for teachers. This wish, however, was not carried out. The Pietists began to awaken great interest in education early in the eighteenth century. An outgrowth of this movement was the founding of the celebrated institutions by Francke in Halle. But none of these, although they trained teachers, made a specialty of that work exclusively. Soon after the founding of the teachers' seminary at

The Pietists.

Francke's institutions in Halle.

* *Cyclopædia of Education*, Kiddle and Schem, p. 363.

Stettin the king ordered the establishment of a normal school at Magdeburg (1736).

In 1881 Berlin celebrated the jubilee of her city teachers' seminary, that having been established in 1831. Although there had been two predecessors,—the Kurmark Seminary, for country teachers, established in 1748, and the seminary for the Volks schools, in 1804,—neither of these were regarded as the real beginning of city normal schools in Berlin.*

Prussia continued to establish teachers' seminaries, until now she has sufficient means of training all her teachers for their special work. Another important step was taken in 1794, when a law was passed making all institutions of learning, including universities, state institutions. Previous to that time they had been regarded as Church institutions, and the Church had them under her fostering care. The Church continued to have a share in the maintenance and direction of the schools, and continues to do so until this present time. But the state took them in charge upon the above date and has maintained that right ever since, while the influence of the Church in the schools grows less from year to year. This law was of the utmost importance, not alone because the state assumed the responsibility of education, but because it laid the foundation for a legally recognized school system for the whole monarchy.

* Nachrichten über d. königl. Seminar für Stadtschullehrer.

CHAPTER V.

THE VOLKSSCHULE UNDER FREDERICK THE GREAT.

PRUSSIANS point with great pride to Frederick the Great as a hero, warrior, and statesman. He was all of these, and by force of arms he not only extended the borders of his kingdom, adding greatly to his possessions, but he also elevated his nation in the eyes of the whole world. But in no direction did he so thoroughly prove his statesmanship as in his interest in the education of his subjects and in the founding of schools.

His father had left him a full treasury, and a governmental machinery simple in its details, methodical, rigidly economical and in thorough working order. Frederick, being ambitious for martial glory, entered upon military conquests at the very outset, and for the first twenty years of his reign his whole thought was absorbed in war. But in 1763 at the close of the "Seven Years' War," he turned his attention to the internal affairs of his kingdom, especially to the schools. He issued a general school regulation which was to apply to the whole nation.

The French philosopher of nature, Rousseau (1712-1778), sounded the key-note of a great reform in school methods, which was taken up by Pestalozzi, Frederick the Great, Kant, Goethe, Schiller, Jean Paul, Rousseau. Fichte, Schleiermacher and others. Rousseau sought to bring the child by natural methods to self-consciousness, to freedom of thought and action. The French Revolution was the outcome of Rousseau's teachings carried to the extreme. The Germans took his teachings more philoso-

phically, and therefore good rather than evil resulted from them.

Undoubtedly the works of Rousseau exercised a great influence upon the "philosopher of Sans Souci," who had been already from boyhood strongly permeated with the teachings of the French philosophers. Rousseau's "*Émile*" had appeared, and all Europe was discussing it, while its new ideas were exciting universal interest. The philosopher Kant was so interested in the book that he forgot to take his regular walks to which he had been accustomed for years.

Goethe declared it, "*das Evangelium der Erziehung*" (the gospel of education). Rousseau declared war against all previous methods of instruction, especially those that made religion take a prominent place. He placed great stress upon bodily development, for, said he, "The weaker the body the more it demands, the stronger it is the more it is obedient to the mind." The child must unite the understanding of the sage with the strength of the athlete. Such teaching as this could not fail to please a ruler who was so intelligent as Frederick and who so earnestly sought the good of his people.

Rousseau further taught, "Let the first education be negative; do not force the child to learn, but let him learn from nature—no other book but the world about him, no other teaching but that of living facts. The child is not to know because he has been told, but because he has found out for himself. He does not learn science—he discovers it. The first development is that of the senses, and the first knowledge is that which is obtained by the senses." Rousseau says, "*Émile* has indeed but little knowledge, but he has no half-knowledge."

Pestalozzi especially was greatly influenced by Rousseau, and all Germany also was greatly moved by this new teaching. One of the outcomes of this movement was the

**Influence of
"Émile."**

**Goethe's
opinion of
"Émile."**

**Rousseau's
principles.**

founding of teachers' seminaries or normal schools. In many parts of Germany the sceptre of the schoolmaster was still largely in the hands of invalid soldiers, impoverished professionals, bankrupt merchants, crippled young men, worthless students, ladies who had not succeeded in finding husbands, and widows without resources,—in a word, persons who had turned to this calling as their last sheet-anchor. If they could read, write and cipher, and were orthodox in faith, no one asked for wider culture. But the teachings of Rousseau, having given new impulse to education, created a demand for better instructors. Accordingly teachers' seminaries were founded in all parts of Germany, as already mentioned, and the want of better trained teachers, which we have seen to have already been a struggling conception in the minds of the foremost thinkers, came to be an imperative demand, and teachers' training schools sprang up in various parts of the Fatherland.

Growth of
normal
schools.

But Prussia was the first province to give normal schools prestige and character, and to make them a necessary part of the school system—an example which has been followed by all the other German states.

As early as 1697 August Hermann Francke organized a *teachers' class* in his celebrated orphan school at Halle. It consisted of poor students who assisted him in teaching to pay for their board and lodging. In 1704 Francke organized a seminary for teachers in which the pupil-teachers were given two years of training. This was followed by such remarkable results that the fame of Francke's teachers spread all over Europe, and hundreds of educators flocked to Halle to study the methods of instruction in the institution. Other seminaries were established in various parts of Prussia,—at Stettin, at Berlin, and in other places, as we have already seen. From Prussia the idea gradually

Fame of
Francke's
institution.

spread all over Europe and to America. Frederick the Great encouraged normal schools by issuing an ordinance that all vacancies in schools on the crown lands should be filled by teachers trained in the Berlin seminary.

The remarkable impulses which were agitating the educational world could not fail to have an influence upon the mind of one so intelligent; of one so much interested in the welfare of his subjects, as the great Prussian king. Accordingly in 1763, when peace was established in his kingdom, he issued the general school regulation already mentioned, which is the foundation of the present school system of Prussia. The details of this regulation are as follows:

It made attendance at school compulsory, it fixed the period of attendance, established fines for non-attendance, required the payment of tuition fees for each pupil, and provided from state funds what was lacking for the support of schools.

It regulated the choice of teachers, requiring that all teachers in the principal schools should have been trained in a teachers' seminary, and specified the examination which each must pass. It cared for the support of teachers. It defined what school-books should be used and gave direction as to methods of instruction. It provided for superintendence of the schools.

Unlike his father, the king proclaimed religious tolerance, and called back the professors whom his father had banished. During his reign the office of teacher, heretofore despised, came to be respected, while pedagogics began to take the direction of an acknowledged science.

We have already alluded to the important school law of 1794.

The school law of 1794.

The following are its important details :

1. All public schools and educational institutions are under the care of the state,

2. No person shall be excluded from the public schools on account of religious belief.

3. Children brought up under another religion cannot be compelled to remain at religious instruction which is contrary to the faith in which they have been brought up.

4. Schools and gymnasia in which the youth are taught the higher sciences or arts have all the rights of corporations.

5. Such schools are under the direction of the school authorities appointed by the state.

6. Where the appointment of teachers does not rest with particular persons, it belongs to the state.

7. Without the knowledge and consent of local school authorities can neither new teachers be chosen nor important changes in the arrangement of the schools and manner of instruction take place.

8. As superintendents, inspectors, and overseers of the schools can only persons of sufficient knowledge, good morals, and proper judgment be chosen.

9. No pupil shall be allowed to leave school without the written permission of the teacher and school-inspector.

10. The teachers of the gymnasia and high schools are considered officers of the state.

11. The direction as to manner of educating the child rests with the father, who must have especial care for his religious training, as well as for the knowledge necessary to his position in life.

It will be seen that this regulation is exceedingly comprehensive, but at the same time remarkably liberal. It recognized that education is necessary to the production of good citizenship. This regulation has been modified from time to time, but the above ideas remain the fundamental principles of the present school system. Naturally it met with opposition on the part of the Church, as well as on the part of the

Opposition of
the Church.

ignorant masses; but it was persisted in until the German people have come to recognize their school system as the chief contributor to their present greatness and strength.

Although Frederick the Great was a follower of Voltaire, and therefore extremely liberal in his religious views, if not infidel, he recognized in religion a necessary means to morality. He therefore encouraged religion in the schools and it remained the chief end of school work. He approved of the regulation which urged that the school teacher more than others should be diligent in the practice of godliness, well grounded in the knowledge of the Bible, and a true follower of the Master, in order that by life and teaching he might lead his pupils to preparation for the duties of this life and for the life which is to come. Vacations were fixed usually with reference to the holy days of the Church. Thus Easter, Whitsunday, St. Michaelmas, and Christmas were occasions for holidays. The longest vacation came, however, in harvest time.

The expense of schooling in Frederick's time was as follows: for each child until it was able to read, six pfennigs ($1\frac{1}{2}$ cents) per week tuition was paid; when it could read, nine pfennigs; when able to write and cipher, ten pfennigs. In summer two-thirds of these rates was required, as no fire was necessary. If the parents were too poor to pay this nominal sum, the Church or the poor fund must meet it. In no case could a child be excused or excluded from the school. While the daily sessions were generally from eight to eleven A.M., and from one to four P.M., in some communities in the summer school began at five o'clock in the morning, and was out at eight, and then again from five to eight in the evening. This gave the most of the day for work.

Much was done to systematize the work of the schools and to develop proper methods of instruction. Frederick

the Great combated the principle of practicability as to studies pursued which governed the schools of the sixteenth century, and urged that teachers should endeavor "to cultivate a taste in their pupils for the true, the good and the beautiful." The philosopher Kant greatly aided in this important work, and gave ^{Kant.} principles in his philosophy which exerted a great influence upon pedagogics. The purpose of education, says he, is the realization of the moral idea. Education must cultivate and civilize man, and make him moral. Thus an important and comparatively new ^{New principle in education.} ideal of education was introduced, a principle which has exerted a vast influence for good upon education everywhere since that time.

Germany has never abandoned this as a fundamental idea of education, and the question of utility simply has never had a prominent place in her pedagogics since Kant destroyed the utilitarian idea of education, and proved conclusively that teaching must have the development of the child, and not the fitting of him for practical life for its chief end. Frederick the Great, imbued as he was with the teachings of Voltaire and Rousseau, early sought to give this latter trend to the education of his subjects, though not with perfect success. But the reign of this great man must be regarded as one of the most important for Prussia for what it did to encourage schools, educate the people, and establish the Prussian school system.

CHAPTER VI.

DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE TIME OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

THE kings that followed Frederick the Great continued to have a deep interest in the matter of education. Amid all the political changes, national losses, and disasters to Prussia during the period when her arch-enemy Napoleon had her at his feet, she never for a moment lost sight of the importance of enlightened education. Frederick William III., father of the late emperor William I., declared that, "Although we have lost territory, power, and prestige, still we must strive to regain what we have lost by acquiring intellectual and moral power; and, therefore, it is my earnest desire and will to habilitate the nation by devoting a most earnest attention to the education of the masses of my people." Perhaps history does not show

**Triumph of
education.**

a better instance of the fulfilment of a prophetic resolve on the part of a great ruler when we remember the unparalleled triumph of the son of this king in France in 1870-71, the triumph of education and training over ignorance and impetuosity.

National education had been under the charge of a committee subordinate to the state minister of justice, but from 1808 until 1811 it was placed under the charge of

**Wilhelm von
Humboldt's
work.**

Wilhelm von Humboldt, and made a department of the ministry of the interior. It continued in the same department under von Schuckmann until 1818. These two men wrought a transformation in educational matters. The

laws regulating national and popular education, for some time a dead letter, became for the first time and for all time a reality. Teachers were called from other states, and every effort made to secure instructors with most modern ideas and of extensive culture. Some teachers were trained under the personal supervision of Pestalozzi, and a new spirit pervaded all classes regarding general education.

Pestalozzi's influence.

In 1818 this department was detached from the department of the Interior and given a separate head with the title of *Ministry for Educational Affairs* (Ministerium für den Cultus und für Unterricht). This title was later changed to Ministry for Spiritual, Educational and Medicinal Affairs (Ministerium der geistlichen, Unterrichts- und Medizinal-Angelegenheiten), which this department bears at present. The first to hold this important position after it became an independent department was Baron von Altenstein, who continued in this office till 1840, a period of twenty-two years. He was a man of eminent educational fitness, who brought to the position a wide culture, a great executive ability, and a national reputation.

Separate department for educational affairs.

Baron von Altenstein the first minister.

Besides this, which was of transcendent importance, he had a warm interest in the education of the masses of his people, the common folk.

When we consider the scanty financial support that he received, together with the immense task that he undertook, it will be seen that the progress of national education during his administration was remarkable.

He turned his attention immediately to the improvement of all the schools. An examination of the condition of Prussia between 1819 and 1821 shows the following facts: There were 2462 city schools, with 3749 teachers, and 17,623 country

Result of von Altenstein's work.

schools, with 18,140 teachers. At his death in 1840 there were in Prussia 6 universities, 120 gymnasia, a large number of *Real* schools, 38 teachers' seminaries, and about 30,000 public schools. All of these were in good condition, and there was everywhere a healthy interest in education. The number of children attending school equalled one sixth of the inhabitants of the kingdom, a result never before attained by any nation in the history of the world.*

The next important law after that of 1794 was that of 1817, which established the department of education under a separate ministry. In 1825 general laws were enacted in which the powers and duties of the provincial school board were changed and amplified.

In 1854 the organization of the school system was revised, and finally in 1872, under Minister Falk, another **Important** revision took place in which the school courses **school laws.** were fixed, the subjects to be taught and work to be accomplished in each specified, the schools classified, and the purpose and work of the common schools carefully defined. The regulations of 1872 constitute the basis and furnish the directions which are followed to the present time. While there have been other laws enacted from time to time bearing upon the schools, inspection and support of the same; the teachers, their training, appointment and support; the government and management of the schools, etc., these constitute the chief enactments for the schools during this century.

In general we may note the following changes and tendencies :

* Since von Altenstein Prussia has been served by eminent men in the capacity of Minister for Educational Affairs, among whom we may mention Eichhorn (1840-48), von Raumer (1850-58), von Bethmann-Hollweg (1858-62), von Müller (1862-72), von Falk (1872-79), von Puttkammer (1879-81), von Gossler (1881-91), von Zedlitz-Trützschler (1891-92), and Dr. Bosse since 1892.

1. The state contributes far more from its general funds to the support of schools than formerly. We shall see later that it now pays nearly half of **Changes and tendencies.** the expenses of the common schools, and this proportion is constantly increasing, whereas formerly the state contributed little or nothing.

2. Because of this state support, and because of its right to educate the children, the tendency is to centralize the school system and take from the community its authority and rights to control its own school. This is viewed with jealousy by many who believe that parents should have the largest voice in the education of their own children and in the selection of those who are to teach them.

3. The schools, which formerly were wholly under Church control, are being separated from ecclesiastical influence. While they are state institutions, the Church, through its pastors and through the union of many teachers' positions with a Church office, still has a great deal to do with the schools. At least three-fourths of the school-inspectors are local pastors. The teachers desire the removal of Church authority and the appointment of pedagogically trained men as school-inspectors, an end which undoubtedly will be reached sooner or later.

4. The general abolition of tuition fees, making the schools practically free, is a powerful agent for extinguishing class distinctions. The free schools are growing in popularity, and are drawing to themselves an ever increasing proportion of the children. This does not indicate that class distinctions will ever be wholly eradicated from German life; but formerly when there were schools charging different tuition rates, especially in cities, parents who were poor were obliged to send their children to schools where the tuition was small; those who were better off could afford better schools; and so on up the scale, thus creating the worst kind of class relations. Free

schools remove this evil, giving to children of poor parents the same privileges as those of the rich. Those who still wish for exclusiveness can make use of the private schools, but these are decreasing in power and number.

5. Another important tendency is found in the disposition to give the teachers better salaries, to reduce the number of pupils to a teacher, to furnish better schoolhouses and school appliances, and to give the instructor greater freedom in his methods of instruction. All of these are needed reforms which are already under way, and which promise still greater things for the common schools of Prussia than the past has witnessed.

Far more important for the schools may be mentioned two movements that have taken place during this century.

The first is the Pestalozzi movement, and the second the Herbart movement. **The Pestalozzi movement.**

(1746-1827) put the teachings of Rousseau to a practical test, and as Germany was made ripe for him through the interest incited by Frederick the Great, Kant, Francke and Goethe, teachers flocked to Pestalozzi's school in order to learn his method and imbibe his spirit. Without doubt he exerted the mightiest influence on the Volksschools of Germany of any man since the time of Luther and Francke. It was said of him that, "Combining paternal interest with maternal fidelity, he himself constituted his method." To him every child had a germ of good in him, and it is by arousing, stimulating, and strengthening that which is noble, that true education is attained. He brought the child to nature, taught him to observe, and made observation the chief means of instruction. Germany adopted these ideas from him, and has in this direction obtained the greatest help from him. While Pestalozzi was erratic and lacked system, no doubt he influenced pedagogical thought and stimulated pedagogical study more than any other man of this century. His real service

to Germany shows itself not alone in the schools, but also in the pedagogical literature, and his work bears increased fruitage from year to year.

Quite a different influence has Herbart (1775-1841) had, or we may say is having. He was the first to formulate a thorough system of pedagogics. In a direct way Herbart has not influenced education in Germany to any such degree as Pestalozzi has. But during the last three or four decades his influence has been increasingly felt more in the direction of bringing pedagogics to a scientific basis than of practical application to the schoolwork of to-day. He has set men thinking and studying principles of education as no man before him has done. He has thrown new ideas into the pedagogical arena which have led teachers of all kinds and grades to seek not alone better methods, but the principles which underlie methods, and upon which the education of the child is based. Such questions as the *necessity and possibility of education, the purpose of education, many-sidedness of interest, the formal steps, the historical steps, apperception, concentration, correlation of studies*, have awakened a vast amount of discussion which cannot fail to bear fruit. Herbart's influence is of a character, from the very nature of things, that makes itself felt, not so much by immediate and apparent results as by a deepening of the foundations of pedagogical truth; and though the work is slow and often imperceptible in growth, it is nevertheless abiding, and is destined to do great good.

We might mention a third influence, that of Froebel and his kindergarten, but as the kindergarten is not recognized as a part of the educational system (see page 225), but rather as a charitable institution, it may not be mentioned here as a movement affecting the common schools of Prussia.

With this general and historical outline the next step

will be to describe the schools as they now exist. Each subject will be discussed as follows:

1. Description, followed by
2. Explanations where necessary.
3. Features applicable to American conditions.

In each case features not applicable will be omitted, the object being simply to draw lessons from the German schools. The grave defects which exist will be merely alluded to, as the object of the work is instruction, using for illustrations a nation that has nourished public schools for upwards of 500 years.

CHAPTER VII.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOLS.

THE government and management of the schools is under control of five factors, as follows:

I. *The whole state*, under the direction of the minister of education as a central authority. The state.

II. *The province*, a division of the state under the direction of a Provincial Kollegium or school board. The province.

III. *The (so-called) government*, a division of the province which has a school commission over its territory. The "government."

IV. *The district*, into which the governments are divided. These are under the charge of a school-inspector. The district.

V. *The local school board*, which has the immediate charge of the school.

In order to give a complete picture of each of these authorities we shall discuss them separately, and in the order of precedence. We therefore discuss, first:

The Central Authority.

This is vested in the *Minister for Religious, Educational, and Medicinal Affairs*. This is the centre of the whole system and the court of final resort in educational matters. As the discussion has to do with the schools only, for convenience the title minister of culture or minister of education will be used. The minister of education.

The work of the office of the minister of culture is at present divided into three general departments.

I. The department of religious affairs.

II. The department of education.

III. The department of medicine.

We have to do with the second department only, that of education. This is subdivided into two departments, one of which has control of the universities, *Gymnasias*, scientific institutions, and higher and technical institutions of learning; the second has charge of the lower schools, including teachers' seminaries, girls' high schools, and institutions for deaf and dumb, blind, idiots, etc. The minister

has oversight of the examinations of schools of all grades, including the universities; dispensing of school moneys, fixing the salaries of teachers, ratifying courses of study for all grades of schools, regulation of private schools, pensioning of teachers, etc., the details of which will appear in later chapters.

Our work is further limited to the second division of the department for schools, that of the common schools. The minister has general oversight of all the schools, and the scope of his duty in this direction is as follows:

General duties of the minister. 1. He represents the schools in the Prussian parliament (*Haus der Abgeordneten*), proposing new laws and revisions of the old ones.

Special duties of the minister in connection with the common schools. 2. Lays plans for the financial support of schools.

3. Applies the finances for salaries, pensions, and in other directions where state assistance is necessary.

4. Appoints the counsellors and members of the provincial school boards and other school officials, excepting those who receive their appointment directly from the emperor.

5. Confers titles upon teachers and other persons connected with the schools.

6. Is the court of final appeal in questions concerning school matters.

7. Renders an annual report of his department to the government.

8. Furnishes a monthly statement of the finances of his department to the finance minister.

9. Ratifies the appointment of the teachers in the teachers' seminaries.

10. Reappoints teachers that have been dismissed from service.

11. Fixes the normal course of study for schools of different kinds, and has general oversight of the examinations therein.

Explanations.

1. While the minister as cabinet officer holds his office during the will of the emperor, and must necessarily enter more or less into the politics of the government, only men of high character have ever been chosen, and these have employed all of the great opportunities of their high position for the benefit of the schools. They have always been men of pedagogical training, men eminent in the educational world, who had full appreciation of the wants of the schools. The manifold duties of this cabinet officer, embracing, as we have seen, not only the department of schools, but also the department of religious and medicinal affairs, make him one of the most important officials in Germany. Many of the friends of education feel that the department should be simply for schools, and should therefore be relieved from its connection with religious and medicinal matters. This is a needed reform which will, without doubt, be brought about before many years.

Wish that
the schools
may have
separate
departments.

2. The appointment of many teachers in the high schools rests with the minister, while the great mass of

teachers are appointed by other authorities, as we shall see later.

3. Whenever a teacher is dismissed from service it is for incapacity or immorality. This, however, occurs extremely seldom, and only upon most flagrant abuses. Therefore reinstatement is also very difficult, only being possible through consent of the minister.

4. The normal course is the minimum of what the state expects, and is general in character. It admits of modifications to suit local conditions.

Application.

What are there in these conditions that are applicable to the American system? Without doubt the educational interests would be vastly furthered if there were an independent department of education with a cabinet officer at its head. This would be simply a proper recognition of one of the most important interests of the nation, and would stimulate educational activity, unify the school work, and bring the schools to a higher plane. This does not mean that this department should bear all the power of the Prussian minister of education. The idea of the German government is a central one, that is the power goes out from a central head reaching to all parts of the empire, and this applies equally in its school interests. With us the government is "of the people, for the people, and by the people," therefore to the people of each locality should be left largely the control of their schools. But there is no reason why there might not be an educational department with general authority and powers, the same as there is a post-office department, an interior department, an agricultural department, each having general powers. How far these powers should extend is not here to specify. At least all of the powers now possessed should be retained, and in addition thereto we may note:

A department of education with cabinet officer at its head.

1. The right to fix the minimum course of study that every child in the land must pass through. This would, of course, be much lower than many sections are already pursuing, but would be within the possibilities of attainment everywhere. This course could be elevated from time to time as the educational conditions improve. No doubt such a course emanating from the general government would unify the educational interests everywhere and incite many of the states to greater activity in educational matters.

2. In order to enforce the above there should be a fund at the disposal of the department, which it should distribute in assisting communities which are unable to carry on their schools without help. Appropriations should be made for this department the same as they are made for the other departments, Congress specifying the manner of distributing.

3. At present it is a matter of choice on the part of the persons of whom facts are obtained whether or not they give them. The department should have power to require the necessary statistics for which it may ask.

4. There should be the power to fix a uniform college entrance requirement, and also the work to be covered for the acquirement of each degree. This is a very much needed reform, and such a central educational authority would be the best possible means of carrying it out.

These are but few of the powers that should be given a national department of education. It is not the design here to suggest a plan for such a department, but rather to call attention to some advantages suggested by the German system.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PROVINCIAL SCHOOL AUTHORITY.

THE kingdom of Prussia is divided into thirteen provinces, and these constitute thirteen general divisions of the school system. Each province is presided over by a president, who by virtue of his office is president of the provincial school board (Schul-Kollegium). He ranks next to the minister of culture in educational affairs. With him are associated several other royal counsellors, among whom are usually school-superintendents, principals, and other pedagogically trained men. Thus the direction of the schools is kept in the hands of men of the highest character and position, together with those who have professional knowledge of schools and know how to intelligently direct them. The members of this board are proposed by the minister of culture and appointed by the king, and their office is entirely independent of politics. The board holds regular meetings in the residence-city of the president. Their authority and duty extend: *

1. To all matters in general connected with educational institutions of all kinds.

2. The examination of statutes and rules connected with the inner workings of the schools, such as daily programs, courses of study, etc.

3. Enacting of special school laws for their province, attending to matters of discipline among the teachers, and seeing that the schools have the proper appliances for work.

* "Die Volks- und die Mittelschule."

4. Examination of school-books, deciding when changes are necessary, and adopting new text-books.

5. Preparation of new school-books, which, however, are not to be printed until approved by the minister.

6. Organization and control of the teachers' seminaries, as well as institutions for the further instruction of teachers already in office; appointment of the teachers in the seminaries.*

7. Oversight of institutions for the blind, deaf, and dumb, idiots, etc.

8. In Berlin they have also the direction of girls' higher schools, common and private schools, which in all other parts of the kingdom come under the control of the governments.

9. Oversight of the high schools, that is, such as prepare for the university; also the appointment, promotion, discipline, suspension and dismissal of teachers in the same. With respect to the principals and head-teachers, their appointments must be confirmed by the minister.

10. They have the direction of the school finances of the province, fixing the salaries of teachers in the higher schools, and providing funds for the support of the whole school system.

11. They are directly subject to the minister, and must render him a semi-annual report with reference to certain facts, and a full annual report concerning the schools.

While the provincial boards must follow the general requirements of the school law, freedom is allowed them in details which may have force in their particular locality. Thus in a farming-district, a mining-district, or a manufacturing-district the course of study, the time of vacations, and other school interests may be modified so as to do the most good to the inhabitants of that district.

* Ratified by the minister.

From time to time schoolmen of the province are invited before them to enter into their counsels and give expression as to the wants of the schools, viewed from the standpoint of practical, active teachers. Thus the two bodies, the school authorities and the school instructors, are kept in touch with each other, and the best interests of their common charge, the schools, are furthered.

The province somewhat corresponds with our state, and the provincial Schul-Kollegium with our state board of education, where it exists. There has been a long-felt want among schoolmen in America for the universal adoption of a state board of education. Where such boards exist their powers should be increased, and where they do not exist, they should be established. The state board should be clothed with authority to direct all of the school interests in the state under the executive management and leadership of the state superintendent of schools, who should be *ex-officio* president of the board. Its members should be chosen for life, or at least for long periods, entirely without regard to politics, and should always be men of high character, ability, and possessing a knowledge of the wants of the schools. The efficiency and character of the Regents of the State of New York is an illustrative example of what a state board of education should be, and their noble work furnishes a standard which might well be followed as an ideal.

**School board
and school-
men keep in
touch.**

**State board
of education.**

**Noble work
of New York
State Regents
an example.**

CHAPTER IX.

THE GOVERNMENTS (REGIERUNGEN).

THE third link in the chain of the Prussian school system is the government. The provinces are divided for political purposes into royal divisions called governments. In the smaller provinces the government and the province are territorially the same; thus the province of Schleswig-Holstein has but one government, while the province of Hanover has six. The total number of royal governments in the thirteen provinces is thirty-six, each of which has a school board also. While the work of the provincial school board has chiefly to do with the high schools, that of the government boards has to do with the common schools. The president of the royal government is *ex-officio* president of the school board. There are six other members, two of whom are appointed by the king for life and four are chosen by the provincial school board for a period of six years, two being chosen once in every three years. Each of these members has an alternate who is chosen in the same way and who acts for him in his absence. They are residents of the district, and must be men of high character who are acquainted with the needs of the schools. They receive no salary, but are allowed a small sum per day for actual time given, and also traveling expenses. Their duties are as follows:

The school
board of the
Royal
government.

1. The appointment of the teachers of the common schools, that is, such as are appointed directly by the state,

and the confirmation of those appointed by other authority (Church, patron, local board, etc.). (See **Duties of the government board.** page 169.) They also have charge of the examination of all teachers.

2. Oversight of the efficiency, faithfulness and moral bearing of the teachers. They also grant leave of absence to the teachers.

3. Direction and oversight of all public and private schools, together with institutions of mercy.

4. Especial direction of the entire elementary school system.

5. Direction of the external matters of the schools, together with the regulation of school tuition where it is charged.

6. Oversight of all institutions of a literary character that may not be included in the above.

7. Establishment of school districts as the wants of communities may demand.

8. Decide upon text-books used in the common schools, approve school programs, and attend to other duties for the common schools corresponding to those of the provincial board for the higher schools.

They are subordinate to the provincial board, with whom they work in harmony, making the necessary reports, and advising with them in school matters. They come more directly in contact with the teachers and school interests than does the provincial board. The teachers' training-schools are directly under their control, and they must examine the same, and see to the appointment of the graduates to provisional positions. After the period of probation is over they make a further examination of the candidates, after which permanent places are given them. It is the duty of the school board to inform themselves as to the success of the teacher during this probation and to decide whether it is sufficient to warrant his being clothed

with full authority as a teacher. Thus abundant safeguards are placed around this important office to prevent unworthy and incapable persons from being permanently admitted to it; but when all the conditions are met, the state protects and takes care of those whom it has admitted. This final recognition can only take place after the teacher is twenty-four years of age.

CHAPTER X.

THE DISTRICT (KREIS).

EACH government is again divided into districts over which are placed school-inspectors. There are (1893) 298 district-inspectors who devote all of their time to the schools, they being the direct agents of the school boards for looking after the schools. They are always professional teachers who have had long years of successful experience and who have passed all the necessary examinations which lead up to this position (see page 161), and are appointed by the minister for life.

There is also a school board or commission for the district, similarly constituted as the higher school boards, the district-inspectors, however, being members also. **The district school boards.** As their authority extends over only a comparatively small territory, they are enabled to come into still closer contact with the schools. They have control and oversight of the following matters in the common schools:

1. The erection and organization of schools.
2. The fixing of boundary lines of school districts and the decision as to where school taxes are to be paid, thus giving each school its proper support.
3. The decision as to what property is liable to school tax.
4. Determining the amount of teachers' salaries, and providing for the same.
5. Oversight of pensions.
6. Direct oversight of the local school committee and their management of the individual schools.

7. The enforcement of compulsory education and the decision of school questions that may arise from time to time.

In cities there is a general school board corresponding to the above-mentioned district board. The number of members depends upon the size of the city. There are one or two school-inspectors, from one to six members of the royal city officials, who are named by the mayor, an equal number of members of the common council, the same number of citizens, and also of pastors. There are also one to three of the city principals appointed by the mayor to this board, and if there are several religious confessions each must have a representative. Thus all classes have a representation in this board—the school-inspectors, the royal government, the city, the citizens, the Church, and the teachers. The city comprises a district, or, if large, several districts. For example, in Berlin there are ten districts, each having an inspector of schools. Great care is exercised in the selection of men to act in the capacity of members of the school board. They are appointed for periods of six years, and are generally re-elected if they show their interest and efficiency, and desire to continue in office.

This indicates the general composition of the district board and its duties, though the control of schools in this respect varies in different sections of the kingdom.

There is no general regulation which applies equally everywhere, though the above shows the general condition of things. It is very difficult to make a general statement which shall apply everywhere. For instance, in the matter of school inspection, in some districts there are inspectors who devote their whole time to the interests of the schools, while in many other cases the oversight of the schools is left to local inspectors, generally pastors. Of the former there are, as we have seen, 298 pedagogically trained men

who give all their time to the schools, each having about
Number of 240 classes to inspect, and of the latter there are
school- 925, whose work extends only to one or more
inspectors. schools, and who perform these duties simply as
 a secondary office.

The pedagogical training that is required of the latter consists of a six-weeks' summer course in a teachers' seminary before entering upon a pastorate. In this course they hear lectures on teaching, visit classes in the seminary, and seek to gather some knowledge of school law and school management. Of course but little can be done in so short a time, and it is generally regarded by most candidates in the light of a vacation. In some cases a candidate of theology, in anticipation of this duty, which is usually imposed upon him, hears lectures on pedagogy in the university; but of practical or theoretical knowledge of pedagogy but little can be claimed for the pastors. In many small places the pastor, aside from the teacher, is the only one capable of attending to immediate questions which arise, such as granting leave of absence from school, complaints or disputes, and other matters that cannot be referred to the district-inspector, who perhaps lives some distance away. The teachers generally wish for the abolition of the local inspection and the universal establishment of district-inspection, with the assignment of the local duties necessary to be performed by some one at hand to the head-teacher of each place, and matters of dispute in which the teacher is involved to be referred to the local school board. Thus would be abolished a relic of authority of the Church over the schools which has existed for centuries. Only religious instruction in the schools would still remain under the inspection of the pastors of the respective Churches, an arrangement which all parties agree should not be disturbed; but the general inspection of

**Pedagogical
training of
the pastors.**

**Teachers
desire the
removal of
Church
authority.**

schools should be in the hands of a competent, professionally trained pedagogue, an important and vital matter for the success of the schools. Wherever such school-inspectors have been installed, the results have proved the wisdom of the system. The permanency of their appointments gives a stability and uniformity to the school policy. No doubt the efficiency of the German schools is owing largely to the permanence with which all school officers, from the highest to the lowest, hold their positions, and those nations that have most closely copied Germany in this respect have reached the best results in educational development.

**Permanency
of all school
officials.**

CHAPTER XI.

THE LOCAL BOARD.

THERE now remains the discussion of the last of the list of the school authorities—that of the local school board. Each school, whether it be in the large city or whether it be in the country, has a local board that stands in closest relations to it. Each city, we have seen, has a **Trustees for each school.** school board that manages the school interests in general. This board or school deputation chooses a special board of trustees for each school.

The principal of the school must be one of the members, and citizens who reside within the limits of the school district comprise the remainder. These trustees are chosen for three years, and have the power to choose their own members after the manner of college boards of trustees with us, confirmation by the general board being necessary. In country places and villages the mayor is chairman of these trustees, and the other members are chosen from the citizens. The management of the country schools, however, rests with vastly different bodies under different circumstances. In some cases it rests with the so-called **Great variety of local authorities.** patron, who owns a large estate and must support the school for the children of his employes, and because of this support he has many reserved rights, such as naming the teacher, modifications of the school course, hours in which the school shall be held, time of vacations, etc., thus suiting the school to the wants and conditions of his particular people. In others it rests with a Church organization that has from time immemorial had

the direction and support of a school, and because of this, the rights of the Church are still respected. In others—and this includes most cases—it rests with the community through its representatives. In short, we may say it belongs to the interested parties to direct their own school within certain limits. Their duties do not apply to the internal affairs of the school, as the local trustees cannot interfere with the teacher, with the course of study, with school-books, and with other matters which have to do with the conduct of the school. These rest, as we have seen, with higher boards. They must see to repairs, supplies, enforcement of regular attendance, see that all the children have entered school, and act as the direct agents to whom parents may complain, and to whom teachers may turn for the enforcement of law. In the country places they have a voice in the choice of teachers, as we shall see in a later chapter. (See page 62.)

In small places where there is usually only one pastor, said pastor always has a seat in the local board of trustees.

We may give a general view of the Prussian school authorities by the following schedule:

I. *The State or Kingdom*: Minister of Education, during the will of the king; general direction of all educational affairs.

II. *The Province*—13 in number: Provincial school board (Provincial Schul-Kollegium), appointed by the minister and confirmed by the king; general oversight of the schools of the province; especial care of the high schools.

III. *The Government* (Regierung)—36 in number: School board chosen for 6 years; especial oversight of the common schools; training and appointment of teachers for the same.

IV. *The District* (Kreis): School board representing various interests, chosen for 6 years; direct authority in

the common and private schools, their will being carried out by 298 district inspectors and 925 local inspectors.

V. *The Local Board* (Schulvorstand). For each separate school chosen, from the citizens for 3 years; special oversight of the external matters, school repairs, compulsory education, etc.

We are now ready to consider what there is in this system that could be applied with advantage to the American schools.

There is a harmonious articulation between the various boards, each having its duties, and each subordinate board carries out the purpose and plan of the authority above it. We have similar political divisions, and a similar school organization would doubtless be a great improvement. The plan of the organization would be as follows:

I. The central school authority of the land under a cabinet officer with general powers, as we have already discussed. (See page 50.)

II. *The State*.—With the vastly diverse interests of so great a country, and with the practical independence of the states, each state must have an independent school system. The general aim of the schools, however, should be determined by the national school authority, which, while it seeks to maintain a unity of school purpose for the whole land, does not interfere with the rights of the state to control its own affairs. Therefore each state, as at present, should have its own school system. There should be a state board of education with the superintendent of public instruction as *ex-officio* chairman, and the governor as *ex-officio* member. The superintendent should be the president of the board instead of the governor, as is the case in Prussia, because the governor with us is a political officer elected for a short period, while the former we would have independent of politics and chosen for at least six years.

**Each state
to have its
own school
system.**

He could thus carry out a conservative and yet progressive policy, unfettered by political conditions and absolutely free to serve the best interests of the schools. It goes without saying that he should be pedagogically trained and an experienced teacher.

The other members of the board should also be chosen for not less than six years and should consist of a fair proportion of teachers. This board should have the power to elect the state superintendent, not necessarily from its own number, and also to fill vacancies in its number. If a safeguard to its action in the election of the superintendent or its members is required, confirmation by the state senate would furnish it. There is abundant proof of the safety of trusting the interests of the schools to a board thus constituted. The tendency of such a board would be to re-elect an efficient superintendent, thereby assuring a stable management of the school interests.

The state board of education to elect state superintendent.

One needs only to mention the Board of Regents of the State of New York, and the trustees of colleges everywhere, which are constituted on a similar plan, to find an illustration of wise, conservative, pure, and efficient government of school interests.

This school board should have general oversight of all school interests of the state from the primary school to the university, and especial care of the higher schools. It should fix the course of study, in harmony, however, with the minimum requirements of the national authority, but with special modifications to meet the conditions of the state. It should control and distribute the state school moneys, have the direction of the normal schools, appointment of teachers therein, or at least confirmation when a local board has appointed them, fixing of teachers' qualifications, and having oversight of the examinations of teachers, granting life certificates under

Duties of state board of education.

proper limitations, appointment of professors and teachers in purely state institutions, such as state universities, institutions for the unfortunate, etc.

The agent or executive officer of the board would naturally be the state superintendent, whose duty it would be to carry out the details of the above and perform such other duties as usually fall upon an executive officer. He should be removable for inefficiency or immorality at any time by a two thirds vote of the board.

One difficulty of this plan is not yet met, and that is the manner of choosing the first board, which once chosen shall have the power to perpetuate its existence. It should be constituted without reference to political bias, which, however, is difficult to do under existing conditions. Probably the best means of making the first appointment of school boards would be the judges of the highest court. Once properly established there would be no difficulty in maintaining a school board of highest character and integrity.

III. *The County* is the next political division, and it should be the next division for educational purposes. It should have a school board whose authority would extend over the whole county, but in many cases there would necessarily be divisions of the county into districts for school-inspection purposes. This board should be constituted in the same way and on the same basis as the state board. It should appoint as many inspectors or county superintendents as are necessary,—at least one for each fifty schools,—who also should have a seat in the school board. To this board should be committed the examination and licensing of the teachers in accord with the instructions of the state board, the adoption of text-books, and the general direction of the schools of the county.

The adopting of text-books for a whole state is objection-

able in that it destroys healthy competition on the part of authors and text-book publishers. On the other hand, there should be uniformity throughout a given district, and the county is sufficiently large to satisfy both sides of the question.

IV. Finally, there should be a township school board also chosen in the same way, or in case of a city there should be a special board for it corresponding to the town board. This board should appoint the teachers for the whole township or city; attend to the finances, such as making up of the budget, paying of teachers, and other expenses; see to the construction of new buildings or extraordinary repairs on old ones; decide upon the district boundaries; make necessary regulations for school attendance, vacations, etc.; and in general carry forward the work of the school so far as its general external matters are concerned. They should consult the judgment of the district-inspector, who also must be an experienced teacher, in matters concerning the appointment of teachers, the discipline and efficiency of the school, and should not be allowed to discharge a teacher except for sufficient cause. Their powers within the schoolroom should be limited, the teacher being subordinate to the school-inspector in matters of method, course of study, discipline, and other questions which require an educational expert.

V. The town board should appoint for each school a local committee whose duty it is to look after the immediate interests of the school. This committee should have absolutely no authority over the teacher or the internal affairs of the school. They should see to repairs, supplies, and contingent needs; should see that the school building is properly cared for so as to conduce to the comfort and health of teachers and pupils; should attend to the enforcement of the law re-

**Town school
board and its
duties.**

**Local com-
mittee for
each school.**

garding school attendance; and should be the immediate authority to whom appeal may be made by teachers or parents in cases of dispute, and other matters that need prompt attention.

This plan is a decided modification of the German plan in some respects, and better suited to our American institutions. For example, the German plan is bureaucratic, keeping the most important school matters in the hands of a general authority, while this maintains the right of each locality

**Difference
between this
and the
German plan.**

to control the direct interests of its own schools. The idea of locality, however, is extended for most matters to include the township, thereby securing a wider choice from which to choose the governing body and in a measure centralizing the school interests of the township. Such centralization would subserve the best interests of the schools, just as the uniting of all the schools in a city under one system is far better than to allow each school to be independent. It centralizes enough to give a unity to the schools of a locality without trespassing upon the rights of those most interested, the parents, to govern their own schools. This would cause the abandonment of many

**Advantages
of the town-
ship plan.**

cross-roads' schools that ought to be abandoned, the establishment of schools of a higher grade centrally located to which children of the lower grade schools would be promoted, thereby giving better school advantages at a smaller expense. Inasmuch as the appointment of all teachers rests with the town board, more suitable teachers would be chosen for each particular school, and it would be easy to establish a system of promotion of teachers based upon scholarship, efficiency and experience. This would tend to greater stability of teachers' positions as well as continuity of school-work. On the other hand, the training and licensing of teachers, and the course of study, are matters of general interest, and must

therefore control a wider territory and be committed to a more extended authority.

Again, the establishment of a local committee who are at hand for immediate need, who have control of the material interests, and yet who may not interfere with the internal affairs, of the school, is a necessary and wise part of the system. This divides the intellectual from the material interests, placing each under a special authority, and each authority having its own duties clearly defined.

In all of the school boards,—state, county, and town,—not including the local trustees, there should be a fair proportion of teachers. Without doubt the Teachers in presence in the school board of experienced school boards. men, who by long and active work in the schoolroom have become thoroughly acquainted with educational questions, would not fail to have a salutary influence. There are many matters coming within the duties of these boards that teachers best of all know how to meet and to answer. Hence the wisdom of their selection to school boards.

In this connection we may mention two ends to be sought in the reform of the American school system, and these are imperatively necessary for the success and further development of the schools.

These are (1) greater permanency in office of school officials and school-teachers, thereby giving greater stability to the work in the schools; and (2) the absolute divorcement of all school interests from politics. No great progress can be made until these reforms are made, and there is a great danger of retrogression in the schools if present abuses are not corrected. The faithful carrying out of the plan here sketched, no attempt having been made to give details or specify particulars, would effectually secure the result above indicated and wished for by all friends of the schools.

Two great ends necessary for improvement of the schools.

CHAPTER XII.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

WE have seen that Luther nearly four hundred years ago urged that parents should be compelled to send their children regularly to school; that in Weimar in 1619 the **Historical.** first compulsory law for a whole state was enacted; that Duke Ernst of Gotha in 1640 made a similar regulation for his subjects; that Würtemberg and other provinces followed, until the end of the eighteenth century (1787) witnessed a stringent compulsory law which was everywhere quite efficient, in country districts as well as in the cities; and finally, that Prussia brought the theory to a practical solution. (See page 36.)

In all of these cases two fundamental principles were laid down: 1. That the child must attend school every day that it is in session throughout the entire year. 2. That parents shall be held responsible for such attendance. To a strict adherence to these two principles the success of compulsory education in Prussia is entirely due, and the success of compulsory education has contributed largely to the success of the schools, for there can be no successful school-work when school attendance is irregular. Other German states have united with Prussia in laws requiring regular attendance at school, until the practice is almost universal in all Germany.

The idea of regular attendance at school as soon as the child is six years of age, and until the fourteenth year is

reached, or the requirements of the law are satisfied, is so thoroughly impressed upon the minds of parents and children, and so incorporated into their lives, that no one thinks of such a thing as staying away from school excepting for illness. And in case of illness, when absence is unavoidable and no punishment can follow, even then deprivation of school privileges is most sincerely deplored. We have heard of repeated instances of children being very unhappy because they were obliged to stay at home, and one may be sure that no trivial ailment would be sufficient to keep a child out of school. Indeed, many teachers assert that regular attendance is so thoroughly established, and so fully in accord with the sentiment of everybody, that even if there were no law requiring it parents would still continue to keep their children regularly at school.

**Regular
attendance
a habit.**

As an example of the efficiency of the present compulsory law we give the following statistics for the royal governmental district of Aachen, which also show the improvement in the workings of the law: In 1824 the number of children of school age was 66,611. Of these 32,471, or 49 per cent, did not attend school. In 1891 the number of children of school age was 94,471. Of these there were only 7 children who did not attend school (excepting, of course, those who were excused for physical or mental disability).

**Remarkable
efficiency
of the law
in Aachen.**

One could hardly expect a more perfect enforcement of law than this indicates. The fact, however, that parents are so thoroughly in sympathy with the idea makes the enforcement of the law a comparatively easy matter. Another fact may be mentioned to show the general efficiency of compulsory education in Prussia, and that is in 1893 only about one half of one per cent of the men who were received into the army were illiterate.

Children under thirteen years of age cannot be employed

in factories, nor even then without they have completed the school requirements.*

The general workings of the compulsory law are as follows:

1. Careful record of all births is kept, so that the age of each child in the parish is known.

2. It is the duty of the police, who take the census, to furnish the school board a complete list of all children who have become of school age, as well as any that may have moved into the school district. This must be done twice a year before the opening of

Workings of the compulsory law. each semester. The two semesters begin after Easter in the spring, and after Michaelmas Day in the fall, at which times children are admitted to the school. In many places, especially in the country, they are admitted at Easter only.

3. The school board furnishes the teacher or principal with the above list, so that he knows exactly how many pupils to expect at the opening of school. He also knows what class a pupil of an advanced grade who has come from another school will enter. Thus any necessary preparation for the accommodation and instruction of the pupils can be made beforehand.

4. Should any child not appear, or should one be absent any school day during the year without previous excuse from the parent, the matter is referred at once to the police, whose duty it is to immediately look the case up and give the parent personal warning if there is not good excuse for absence.

5. The parent is held accountable for the attendance of his children. If after warning he still neglects to keep his child in school, he is subject to a fine, which is increased

* When children have reached a sufficient ripeness, and their parents need their help, they may be dismissed from the school, by special dispensation of the school authorities, before they have reached their fourteenth year.

upon continued neglect. If the child is incorrigible, and the parent unable to control him, he is sent to a reform school. Such cases, however, are very rare. Indeed, the habit of regular attendance is so fixed in Germany, as we have seen, and the compulsory law so thoroughly enforced, that unjustified absence is comparatively rare.

Usually, if a child is ill, the parent gives the teacher immediate notice, so that he knows at the ~~opening of the session~~ ^{Illness the} what children will not ~~only excuse.~~ ^{be present.} Illness is the only excuse that is accepted for absence.

This in general is the plan that is carried out throughout the whole kingdom of Prussia. The city of Berlin has a plan of its own under an old right, which is ~~tenaciously and jealously guarded.~~ ^{The Berlin} It varies ~~practice.~~ ^{from the above in that the local trustees instead of the police have the enforcement of the law.} In one vital point the Berlin law is far inferior to the general law. Each Saturday the principal of the school sends a list of unexcused absentees for the week to the chairman of the local committee (see page 72), who in turn distributes the work of visiting the homes and giving the warning to his colleagues who live nearest to the delinquents. Thus several days' absence may occur before anything is done excepting what the teacher has done. Then the further enforcement of the law, such as punishment of parents for negligence and other matters, is cumbersome and not wholly effective. True, there are only comparatively few delinquents in Berlin, but this is owing more to the wish of the parents and the habit of regular attendance already mentioned than to the efficiency of the law. Teachers generally feel that the law of the whole land, which requires the police to attend to absences at once, is far preferable.

While many of the states of America have a compulsory

law, in not a single instance does it apply to the whole school year. The thought has been that, beginning with a small portion of the school year, we can gradually increase the required attendance until it covers the whole year. It must be admitted that but little progress in this direction has been made. The laws that have stood on

**Compulsory
education
for every
school day.**

the statute-books have generally been disregarded, and we believe chiefly because they cover such short periods. All German laws upon this subject, from 1619 down to the present, require attendance for all of the time the school is in session. The right to compel school attendance is thoroughly established throughout the United States, just as the right to tax all property for school purposes is established. If the state may compel attendance for six weeks, it has a right to compel it for forty weeks, for every school day. Therefore compulsory education laws based on the following principles should be adopted:

1. Regular attendance for all schools for which the people are taxed should be required for every day the school is in session.

2. The enforcement of the law should devolve upon the township (city) board of education in a general way; but its specific enforcement should rest with the local committee which has charge of each school. (See page 67.) The town board should appoint as many agents with police authority as may be necessary. In cities and villages there should be one for each school. This officer, under direction of the local trustees, shall execute the law.

3. For non-enforcement of the law the state public moneys should be withheld from the district.

4. The district school-inspector should have especial oversight of this matter, and should stand in close relation to the school board and teachers in his effort to make the law effective.

5. The parent should be held responsible for neglect to comply with the law.

There is nothing un-American in this plan; indeed, all of the principles here suggested as a foundation to compulsory laws have already been asserted, but have not been carried out to a legitimate, logical, and successful conclusion. This plan conscientiously carried out would certainly accomplish the desired result. Attendance at school for every school day tends to form a habit of diligence and regularity which is of the utmost importance in after life in business and in intercourse with our fellow-men. It also is of utmost value to the school-work, which otherwise must necessarily be desultory, fragmentary, and unsatisfactory.

The enforcement of compulsory education would not lead the teacher to make the school any less attractive, nor would it affect, fortunately, the vast majority of children now attending school; but it would save many an idle, vicious, and ignorant child from a life of evil, and make him a useful citizen and a good member of society. It would reach children whom the school cannot attract, over whom the school gets no opportunity to exert an influence, because they never become acquainted with it; it would teach them good habits and prepare them for business by the very regularity required, as well as by the instruction given. It is not the great majority of its citizens that the state has to guard itself against. Most men quietly attend to the duties of life and never come in conflict with the law. The same is true of children. It is the evil few, who will make up the future dangerous class, that the state must provide for, and hence the necessity of compulsory education. No doubt the lamentable failure of compulsory education laws throughout the various states of the Union is largely owing to the short periods which they cover. Let the required attendance cover the whole

Great good
to come from
such a law.

school year, and make participation in the public moneys depend upon the carrying out of the law in each community, and there is no question about the success of compulsory education.

It is urged that parents need the assistance of their children in many instances, and therefore cannot allow them to attend school. If all of the children can be kept in school in Germany, where wages are low and the necessities of life high, surely the same can be done in America. Better that the state assist needy parents for a time than that their children shall be deprived of their right to an education which shall fit them to cope with their fellow-men in life, or to allow them to grow up in ignorance as a menace to society and a danger to the state.

Not impos-
sible because
of poverty.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE COMMON (VOLKS) SCHOOL.

THE "volks" school is the fruit of Christian love of humanity, and its beginning is generally reckoned at the Reformation. We have already seen how it developed. Its purpose is to train all the children of the nation to be God-fearing, patriotic citizens, fitted by the education they receive to fill their place in society. Frederic the Great wished to see "the real

Purpose of
the common
school.

welfare of all classes of his people founded upon sensible and Christian instruction of the youth in the fear of God and in other useful things." Von Müller, Minister of Culture under William I. in 1869, expressed the same idea as follows: "The common school must prepare the youth for their duty towards state and Church, as well as for their calling in life, by means of instruction and by training them to good mental and moral habits." The same idea has been reiterated time and again by rulers and educators, namely, the instruction of the youth with the idea of forming good habits and the development of character. These are the reasons for the existence of schools and why the people are called upon to support them.

The celebrated Von Altenstein, the first Minister of Culture in Prussia, indicated clearly in 1829 the object of the schools, as follows:

Altenstein's
idea of the
school
purpose.

"1. They must seek to lead the youth to the Christian faith in its simplicity, life, and power.

"2. By means of this faith to find the basis of moral and happy lives,

> "3. To be clear and true in thought to the full measure of the talent God has given.

"4. To express their thoughts clearly and connectedly.

"5. To comprehend the thoughts of others in matters that come within their sphere of life.

"6. To be able to read, write, reckon, and sing.

"7. To love their rulers and their fatherland and its laws, in order to live peacefully and contentedly in the sphere where their lot is cast.

"8. To an acquaintance with the useful things of nature in order to apply them for their use and comfort and for the maintenance of health.

"9. To sum up, the schools should make the pupils able, with strong, well-trained body, wide-awake mind, and right feelings, to do their duty towards God, king, and fatherland."

The state insists that all children shall have the elements of education at least, and provides ample means to attain that end. How well it succeeds in bringing about the desired result may be indicated by the fact that of those who entered the army in 1893 99 $\frac{4}{10}$ per cent had passed through at least the common-school course.

While the state requires that all children shall attend school, it does not require them to attend the common or public schools. It is left to the family to decide whether their children shall attend the public schools, or private schools, or higher grade schools of a semi-public character, where higher tuition is paid, and which usually prepare for the high schools, or whether a teacher shall be taken into the house as private teacher. Thereby the sacred family right to educate their own children is respected. But the state asserts the right to fix the minimum course of study; to require regular school attendance, whether it be in a general school or in the home; to pass upon the qualification

Parents free to choose manner of educating their children.

of all teachers; and to inspect the education of all children, wherever it may be undertaken. Thus private schools and home teaching are as carefully looked after as the public institutions, so far as results are concerned.

The common schools are open to every child of school age without regard to religious belief or confession; but no child can be required to remain at religious instruction if of another faith. Religious instruction must be had, however, if not taken in the school, either from the pastor of that particular confession or from other outside means. The common schools are all of a confessional character, dividing generally on the lines of Protestant and Catholic. Protestant teachers are employed for Protestant schools, and Catholic teachers for Catholic schools; and both alike are supported at public expense.

In small villages where only one school can be supported, children of all confessions attend the same school, the teacher being of the confession having the majority of children, and children of religious faith other than his are excused from religious instruction in the school. The state decides whether it is advisable to erect another school in a community for confessional reasons, being governed by the number of children and by the activity of the community to support an extra school. Thus, where there are a sufficient number of Jewish children, a special school may be organized for them. The different branches of the evangelical Church are not recognized by the organization of special schools, but parents may have their wishes respected with reference to religious instruction by having it given by their pastor. As Prussia is so largely Protestant, but little trouble of adjustment arises; but it often occurs in cities that there are schools for Protestant children and schools for Catholic children in the same school-

**Schools are
confessional
in character.**

**Equal privi-
leges for all
confessions.**

yard, each enjoying equal privileges under the state and each respecting the rights of the other.

We have seen that the school year begins with Easter, and that pupils are admitted only then and at Michaelmas, in many cases only at Easter. The financial school year begins April 1, as the date of Easter varies from year to year. Also that the school period is from 6-14 years of age and that attendance is expected for every school day during this period. The completion of the course is an occasion of festivity, as marking an important epoch in the child's life. It is connected with the confirmation and admission to Church membership, and the pupil is no longer a child, but is admitted to the dignity and respect of manhood or womanhood. The school authorities have

Private as well as public schools under authority of the state. the right to examine not alone pupils in the public schools, but also those in private schools, or those taught by private teachers. The state thus fully controls education everywhere, and no child can be allowed to leave school until he has attained the necessary knowledge and ripeness required by law. The state supervision of private schools keeps their standard up, and at the same time makes the educational requirements a unit everywhere.

School sessions are usually from 8 to 12 and from 2 to 4, the morning sessions being held six days in the week, Wednesday and Saturday afternoons being free. The fixing of school hours is left to local boards. In some localities the school hours are 7-11 in the summer, and in some country districts, where the children are needed to assist at home, the hours are still earlier. In Berlin and some of the other large cities the morning hours are 8-1, and the children do not return in the afternoon except certain days for gymnastics or other light work.

The recitations are full hours, except in schools of one teacher, where the number of classes necessitates the divi-

sion of the hour, but at the end of each second hour there is a recess of 10–20 minutes. In some schools there is a short recess at the end of each hour, but during the long recess all of the children are required to go out of doors, regardless of the weather. They march slowly around the school-yard, in line, under the care of one or more teachers. Seldom are children allowed to run and play with freedom in the school-yard. We have often criticised this practice to German teachers, but have been met with the reply that the yards are so small that there is danger of injury, and that too much exercise “would prevent digestion of their breakfast.”* Our reply was that the yards are fully as large as our American school-yards under like conditions, that injury seldom results with us, and that the good which would come from lively, earnest, and joyous play would far overbalance any harm that could come from the indigestion of a sandwich. To an observer the “prison march” of children during recess in a German school is fearfully painful, while it accomplishes but little good. The opportunity is afforded during recess to ventilate the schoolrooms, which many times, however, is wholly neglected, and in some cases forbidden. As a result the air in the classrooms is generally bad, the Germans having by no means, no more than we, solved the problem of school ventilation.

The children of all kinds of schools, whether taught by one teacher or by many, are divided into three general grades or classes (Stufen), the lowest, the middle, and the highest. These correspond with our primary, intermediate, and grammar grades. The lowest grade includes children 6–8, the middle grade

**Full hour
recitations
for all.**

**No play at
recess.**

**Three grades
for all kinds
of schools.**

* It is the custom in all German schools for pupils as well as teachers to take lunch, “breakfast,” as they call it, consisting generally of a sandwich, during the first recess.

those 8-11, and the highest grade 11-14. Those of the lowest grade must attend school 20-22 hours per week, while the others have 26-30 hours. Each teacher is expected to give 32 hours per week, though in the cities it often occurs that they give not more than 24-28 hours. In the country, however, the number generally exceeds the legal maximum. The number of pupils for one teacher is limited to 80, though in some districts the number still goes to 100 and even more. In Berlin one finds seldom more than 60, and in the advanced class from 40 to 50.

Vacations comprise about 63 days, exclusive of Sundays, thus leaving about 42 weeks of actual school during the year. The summer vacation commences about the middle of July and lasts from 3 to 4 weeks. The Easter, Michaelmas, and Christmas vacations are each about two weeks, and there is also a three-days' vacation at Whitsuntide. The school boards of the various districts may fix the vacations to suit local conditions, such as time of harvest, etc., but must keep within the limit of total time allowed for vacations. The Michaelmas vacation is usually known as the "potato" vacation, because it comes at the time of the potato harvest. The summer or "harvest" vacation is made from year to year to suit the conditions of the harvest in various sections of the country so that the children may be free to assist.

**Vacations
may vary to
suit local
conditions.**

It will be noticed that the holidays generally occur at religious festivals. This is owing to the fact that the school is the child of the Church, having been organized, watched over, and long supported by her, until the state adopted compulsory education, and therefore necessarily assumed that the school is a state institution. The Church, however, still assists in many districts in the support of schools, and is also closely connected with them by both interest and authority, as we have already seen.

No parent or other person is allowed to visit the school, excepting such persons as have to do with the superintendence or inspection of the school. Permission is granted to professional teachers, especially foreigners who may desire to study the workings of the school. Even the school board have not the right to visit the sessions of the school, as they have nothing to do with the internal workings of the school. The teacher has been professionally prepared to conduct the school, and he is held accountable for its success, being responsible, so far as the internal affairs of the school are concerned, only to his inspector, who is also a professional educator.

**Visitors not
allowed in
the schools.**

This practice, so contrary to the wishes of American teachers and school authorities, is justified in Germany by the argument that parents who might visit the school are generally not capable of judging of the merits of the work because they are not professionally trained, and therefore their presence would simply disturb both pupils and teacher without doing any good. The point is certainly well taken so far as Germany is concerned. It may be doubted if in America much good has ever come from the practice, although but few parents ever make use of this right, as it disturbs the order of the school, awakens a desire to unnatural and unusual effort on the part of both pupils and teacher, and interferes with the office of the school, which is steadily, systematically, day after day to build up the structure of knowledge.

As parents are excluded from the regular school-work, it has long been the practice to hold public oral examinations (Prüfungen) at the close of each semester, especially at the close of the year, just before Easter, to which the public are invited. The design is to keep the parents interested in the schools by this means. Only pupils who are to be promoted are admitted to this examination, and failure to answer the

**Public ex-
aminations
to interest
parents a
failure.**

questions affects in no way their promotion. The teacher exercises them beforehand thoroughly in the questions to be asked, and nothing new is ever proposed. The whole thing thus becomes simply an exhibition. Parents do not attend them very considerably, and thus the one object sought miscarries. A committee from the school deputation is present, and this serves as an examination of the school on their part. The teachers are almost unanimously against the practice, believing that it is harmful rather than beneficial. They have been abandoned in the higher schools. It has been declared that "they no longer serve to keep up the connection of the family to the school," and their universal abandonment is recommended. To take their place, and interest the parents in the school and make them acquainted with the teacher who instructs their children, it is suggested that national and Church holidays be occasions upon which by some sort of public festivity teachers, parents, and children shall be brought together, and by singing national songs, by speeches, by declamations, and by other exercises awaken a mutual sympathy and interest. As the parents also have these holidays, a larger number would be reached, and therefore a wider influence exerted. Without doubt this would be a decided improvement over the present plan, and would cultivate patriotism, as well as interest in the school and its teachers.

**Holiday pic-
nics recom-
mended to
draw school
and family
together.**

At the close of each semester there are the examinations for promotion. These are both oral and written and are left to each school by itself, general instructions from the school authorities being given. The teachers are allowed to use their judgment in this matter, it being recognized that a teacher who has been in daily contact with a child for months and has taught him the various subjects of the school course is fully able

**Examinations
for promo-
tion.**

to determine whether he is ripe for promotion. Examinations therefore are not a bugbear, nor are they considered as of great vital importance.

The next question of interest is the discipline of the schools. While corporal punishment is practically abolished in Berlin and some other places, it is generally recognized that the teacher is *in loco parentis*, and that all rights belonging to the parent belong to the teacher, so far as punishment is concerned. A teacher may be called to an account in the courts for abusing this prerogative just as a parent may be. It rests with any local board to wholly abolish corporal punishment in its school at pleasure. As the teacher is required to record each case, specifying the causes which made it necessary, the manner and amount of punishment, and finally report the same to the school-inspector, safeguards are placed around its practice which serve to restrain it within proper bounds. We know that the impression prevails among Americans that German teachers "spare not the rod," and that their manner of discipline is severe, if not brutal. A series of visits running into the hundreds, covering all classes of schools in all parts of Germany, and during a period of four years, does not bear out that view of the case. On the contrary, the spirit of the great body of teachers is that of kindly and humane interest, affectionate solicitude for moral growth, and the administration of justice always tempered with mercy. They are from hereditary pedagogical custom rigid, firm, and exacting in discipline, but that does not mean that there is lack of love on the part of the teacher, or that the pupils do not love their teacher. Indeed, the children are generally fond of their teacher, and hold him in highest respect. Kindness is the rule and harshness the rare exception. No doubt there are still abuses of this kind, and so there are in the American schools, but the

idea that the German schoolmaster is a tyrant to his pupils is surely a mistaken one.

The general practice in Germany as to the authority of the teacher outside of the school premises is that his authority holds good on the street or in other places for every day of the week. He may call a pupil to account on the spot or may call him up in school for a misdemeanor. Indeed, in some cases parents make use of this by asking the teacher to discipline their children when they are unable to control them at home, thus making the teacher a sort of police justice and policeman combined. Of course these conditions no longer exist in the large cities to so wide an extent, but they do exist in small communities.

Wherever it can be avoided, boys and girls are never taught together. In the country schools this cannot be avoided, and both sexes attend the same school; but in cities separate schools are always established. It often occurs that a boys' and a girls' school are in the same building, the boys occupying one end and the girls the other, and one common yard answering for both, the two schools arranging the recesses so that they fall at different times. Thus there are cases in Berlin in which one large building answers for two thousand children, a thousand of each sex. The chief grounds for separate schools for the sexes are: 1. That the course of study for girls must necessarily be different from that of boys. The law of 1869 declares the purpose of the common school to be: "To assure to the youth the necessary preparation for citizenship and godly life, as well as for some calling, by means of instruction and bringing into activity his powers, thereby laying the foundations of culture as well as moral character." Now the girl must be prepared for a different sphere of life, therefore the course for her must be different from that of the boy.

2. The development of the girl is more rapid than that of the boy, therefore their work cannot be pursued together. This difference of development necessitates a different method of instruction for the two sexes.

On the other hand, there are not wanting educators in Germany who believe that the influence of children of opposite sexes upon each other is most salutary and fully counterbalances the disadvantages. In the conference of 1872, called together by the Minister of Culture, and embracing representative educators from all parts of Prussia, the separation of the sexes after the age of ten years was fully discussed. The conference finally resolved that it is best "not to separate the sexes, as they exercise a good influence upon each other, and the girls would also be better instructed in their last years of school by men,* the separation only to take place in such subjects as require it" (needlework, gymnastics, etc.). And yet the general practice in all places where possible, as already mentioned, is to separate the sexes.

The apparatus for teachers' use in each school is specified as follows:

A copy of each book used in the classes; a globe; a map of the locality and province; a map of Germany; a map of Palestine; several charts for teaching history; several alphabetical charts in large letters for use with beginners in reading; a violin; a ruler and pair of compasses; an apparatus for teaching number; and in evangelical schools also a Bible, and the song-book used in that locality.

In large schools this list is to be materially extended.

Besides these the teacher is to have a register, a course of study, and a daily programme always at hand.

The materials each pupil is to furnish are also definitely prescribed. They are as follows:

* The higher classes are nearly always taught by men.

A reading-book; an arithmetic;* a song-book (religious), together with other books needed in religious instruction; a slate, pencil, and sponge, with ruler; a diary, or book in which to make notes; a writing-book; a blank book for orthography and composition; and for upper classes a drawing-book.

These are all so inexpensive that the whole cost is less than a dollar. Most children have a knapsack which holds all of their school materials, as they are not allowed to leave them in the school. Thus one sees the school-children going to and from school each with a knapsack strapped upon his back.

The common schools are classified as follows:

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|--|
| Kinds of
Common
Schools. | { | 1. Schools with one teacher (I. class). |
| | | 2. Half-day schools. |
| | | 3. Schools with two teachers (II. class). |
| | | 4. Schools with full number of classes (III. class). |

1. The schools with one teacher are thoroughly graded and classified, though denominated "one-class" schools.

2. The half-day schools are those made necessary by local conditions; thus when the number of pupils exceeds 80, and the size of the schoolroom or the financial ability of the community does not admit of the employment of a second teacher, a part of the children are taken for half of the day, and the rest for the other half.

3. Schools that employ two teachers are denominated "two-class" schools; they also are graded, and of course more closely than is possible in a "one-class" school.

4. The completely organized school has six classes, although there are eight school years. This, of course, is

* While the teacher has a book covering the whole subject of arithmetic, special books are made for the pupils, each of which includes only the work of one or two years. Thus the pupils are able to get their books at very small cost, and suited to each class. The same is also true of some other subjects.

possible only where there are several teachers employed, as in towns and cities. A weakness in the system appears here in the fact that the number of "classes" does not correspond with the number of school years. Thus a child who is well and can attend school regularly, and possesses ability so as to merit promotion each year, will have completed the course in six years, that is when twelve years of age. He cannot be dismissed from school without the full eight years, or nearly that. Nothing remains but for him to go over the work again. The course, however, is of such a character that but very few pupils are promoted every year of their course, so that in most cases it takes the full eight years to go through the six classes. In Berlin there are two ways of relieving the situation: 1. In large schools there are two or three parallel classes; the best pupils are placed in the upper of these parallel classes, and when it comes to the final year of school the most advanced class have a fine opportunity for review, for extension and deepening of their knowledge, and for entering new fields. 2. There are a limited number of free scholarships at the disposal of the school authorities which enable the brightest children who have completed the common-school course to go into a higher school. Thus boys and girls who would never be able to attend the higher schools on account of the expense are encouraged to work for these appointments and thereby secure superior training.* The teachers generally favor eight grades to correspond with the number of school years, rearranging the course of study in accordance therewith. The power to do so rests with the local board, who hesitate to carry out this reform, chiefly on the alleged ground of added expense. The real difficulty does

Disadvantages of a six-class arrangement for eight school years.

* It will be remembered that the common schools are free in Berlin. But all higher schools require a tuition-fee of 100-180 marks a year.

not lie here, as but little additional expense would be incurred, the present teaching force in most schools being able to carry the work under an eight-class arrangement as well as under the present. The chief difficulty is the conservatism which hinders the introduction of innovations or anything different from the long-established usage. Progressive German educators recognize the advantage that America has over them in this respect, and admire the freedom and eagerness with which new ideas are incorporated into our schools.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE COURSE OF STUDY.

THE subjects taught in the common schools are as follows:

Subjects Taught.	{	Religion.	{	Speaking.
		German Language.		Reading.
				Spelling.
				Writing.
	{	Mathematics.		Arithmetic.
				Elementary geometry.
	{	Singing.		
		Drawing.		
		History.		
		Geography.		
		Natural science.		
		Gymnastics for boys.		
		Needlework for girls.		

This constitutes the normal course required in all common schools of the kingdom, whether taught by many teachers or by one. The following tables indicate the number of hours per week in each subject and for each grade:

ONE-CLASS SCHOOL. (ONE TEACHER.)

Subjects.	Elementary Grade.	Middle Grade.	Upper Grade.
Religion.....	4	5	5
German.....	11	10	8
Mathematics.....	4	4	5
Drawing.....		1	2
Science.....		2	2
Singing.....	1	2	2
History.....		2	2
Geography.....		2	2
Gymnastics (boys) }	1	2	2
Needlework (girls) }			
	21	30	30

SCHOOLS OF MORE THAN ONE CLASS.

Subjects.	Elementary Grade.	Middle Grade.	Upper Grade.
Religion.....	4	4	4
German.....	11	8	8
Arithmetic.....	4	4	4
Geometry.....			2
Drawing.....		2	2
Science.....		2	2 (4)
History.....		2	2
Geography.....		2	2
Singing.....	1	2	2
Gymnastics }	2	2	2
Needlework }			
	22	28	30 (32)

All of these subjects without exception are obligatory, and the number of hours as above specified, but the arrangement of the hours as well as selection of material for the various subjects is under the control of the school board of the district with final ratification by the general school board of the royal government.

Thus local conditions and wants may be taken into account in the selection and arrangement of the school courses, care being taken to comply with the above general requirements.

The normal course specified by law, which is the minimum allowed for schools of all classes, will be discussed by subjects as follows:

Religion.

Result to be Obtained.—Ability to read the holy Scriptures with understanding, knowledge of the chief dogmas of the Church to which the children belong (Catholic or evangelical), and acquaintance with the practices and duties of a religious life.

The work is divided into:

1. *Sacred History*, the first semester of the lowest grade* being devoted to the Old Testament, and the second semester to the New. The teacher tells the story of the creation, paradise, the Fall, Cain and Abel, the Flood, call of Abraham, Abraham and Lot, temptation of Abraham, Joseph's dream, Joseph sold, the first visit of Joseph's brethren to Egypt, the second visit, etc., in simple and, as far as may be, Bible language. In the same way the story of the birth, childhood, manhood, miracles, death, and resurrection of Jesus is told. Also the chief characters and events of all periods of sacred history are systematically studied. The growth of the Church in apostolic times, the history of the Church fathers, the introduction of Christianity into Germany, Luther and the Reformation, as well as questions which are of to-day, are discussed and explained as far as may be. Of course schools that are well equipped with teachers can carry this farther than village schools having but one teacher. Committing to memory without understanding the meaning is not to be practised; hence the teacher must explain the meaning, and seek to bring the lessons from Bible history into the actual religious and moral life of his pupils, thus making the lessons of practical value in forming character.

2. *Bible Reading*.—The upper grade is given the Bible to read, and chapters from the Psalms, Prophets, and New Testament books are studied. Many texts are committed to memory, their meaning having first been explained.

3. On Saturday the lessons for the church service of the next day are to be read and explained. This can be strictly followed only in small villages where all attend one church,

* Attention is again called to the division of all common schools into three grades (Stufen), the lower grade 6-8, the middle grade 8-11, and the upper grade 11-14 years.

and where the teacher is expected to look after the attendance of children upon divine service.

4. *The Catechism.*—Luther's Smaller Catechism is taught and explained. The lower classes learn the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, texts of Scripture, and Church songs. The completion of this part of the work is left to the pastor, who prepares the child for confirmation when he leaves school. This is outside of the school-work, though the teacher and pastor generally work hand in hand in this respect.

5. *Sacred Songs.*—These are taught from the beginning of the course till the end. Those in most common use in the community are first learned, each child being provided with a hymn-book. About thirty hymns are committed to memory, sometimes more, but not until after the meaning of each verse has been studied and explained.

6. *Prayers.*—The smaller children learn the simple morning, midday, and evening prayers, which are used at the opening and closing of school each day. The various Church sacraments and services are explained to the older children. The German language abounds in many beautiful prayers, which cannot fail to have a softening influence upon the heart, hence the wisdom of teaching them to children.

This in general is the course specified. It may be modified to suit local conditions, and be extended in schools where it is possible.

Language (German).

Instruction in language includes the teaching of speaking, reading, writing, and grammar. All of these are taught together from the day the child enters school, and are kept in close connection with each other throughout the whole course. They are thoroughly correlated.

1. *Speaking*.—Exercises in oral expression do not require separate periods of instruction, but are taken in connection with reading and writing exercises, and indeed in every subject taught. Well-known objects and familiar themes form the first basis of this exercise, the object being to get the children to talk. The objects to be sought are (*a*) to bring the child step by step to more correct and plain pronunciation of every word; (*b*) to express his thoughts freely and accurately in a simple sentence; (*c*) to express his thoughts using complex sentences; and finally, (*d*) to express correctly, fluently, and accurately thoughts obtained from some other source, as a book or address, in his own language in topical manner.

2. *Writing and Reading*.—These go hand in hand according to the method prescribed by the teachers' seminary of that district, the alphabet method being forbidden. The lowest grade writes and reads words and short sentences; the middle grade also writes words and sentences in both German and Latin script, writes sentences from dictation, spelling correctly, and reads intelligently; the upper grade pupils must be able to write and spell correctly anything that they will meet in practical life, to read fluently and intelligently ordinary reading. The two highest grades have special lessons in writing from copy, the end to be sought being a neat, plain, and easy handwriting. The results of the instruction in writing and spelling will be shown not alone in the copy-books, but also in the composition and other exercise books, all of which must be neat and well written.

3. *Grammar*.—This is given in the last years and consists of simple sentences and the simplest relations of the parts of speech at first, followed by compound and complex sentences and a more thorough study of the parts of speech and syntax. So much attention is given to language from

the beginning that but little time is needed for technical grammar.

4. *The Reading-book.*—This is the basis of all the above work; it is not to be used simply to make good readers, but to bring the pupils to an understanding of the thought contained in the pieces, about thirty of which are taken for a year's work. These pieces are gems of literature intended to cultivate a taste for good reading, to awaken a love for fatherland, and to give some knowledge of the great poets and authors, especially since the Reformation. The teacher of course is to supplement the material in the book with information concerning authors and their works. National poems are to be committed to memory after a thorough study.

Arithmetic.

The lowest grade has all the fundamental operations of concrete and abstract numbers from 1 to 100; the middle grade unlimited numbers both concrete and abstract, fractions, reduction, and simple rule of three.

The upper grade has review and completion of fractions, the application of all previous work in arithmetic to problems of practical life, and all of the branches of percentage, in schools where it is possible also extraction of roots. Mental exercises (*Kopfrechnen*) occupy the lowest grade almost entirely, and they must always precede slate-work in every grade. Exercises from practical life are to be given, and by this means the systems of money, weight, and measure are to be taught. Use of clear and correct language must always be insisted upon, and the end to be sought is ability to solve the problems independently, accurately, and with rapidity.

Each pupil has a blank book in which he writes exercises given by the teacher. These, and not a text-book, form the basis of his work.

*Geometry.**

This comes in connection with the instruction in arithmetic and drawing. But the upper grade has special work in it. It includes lines of all kinds (horizontal, vertical, parallel, etc.), angles, triangles, quadrangles, regular figures, circles with their related lines, and bodies of regular shape.

In schools of several teachers, where it is possible to do so, in addition to the above elementary exercises in equality of angles, comparison of figures, etc., is given.

Drawing.

Free-hand drawing, under direction of the teacher, of figures placed by him on the blackboard; training of the eye and hand; skill in use of the ruler, measure, and compasses; drawing from objects in the schoolroom and elsewhere; pictures of the schoolhouse, school-grounds, churches, and other buildings, and simple landscapes. These are the general requirements; in schools that are well graded a carefully marked out course for each class is possible.

History.

Prominent persons and events from the early history of Germany are described; but commencing with the Thirty Years' War and the time of the Great Kurfürst (seventeenth century) each ruler and the chief events of his reign are discussed down to the present time—not simply the wars, but also events of importance to the material and intellectual development of the nation are given. While the work is taken up in chronological order and studied consecutively, the memorizing of lists of chronological dates and rulers is not allowed. The course in history also is

* The Germans use the term "Raumlehre" for this subject, which means space proportions or measure of space. As it treats of geometrical figures, and as it is difficult to express the idea with a simpler term, we use the word geometry.

extended in schools where it is possible. The object aimed at is not simply the accumulating of historical facts, but also the instilling of patriotism and love of king into the hearts of the children.

Geography.

Geography begins with the immediate surroundings—home studies—and reaches outward; next comes the province, then the state, the fatherland, and finally general study of the other countries of the world; shape and motions of the earth, the seasons and zones, are explained; the oceans, continents, seas, states, and their peoples, rivers, mountains, and the chief cities are studied more thoroughly at the end of the course, but memorizing of the number of inhabitants of countries or cities, of lists of cities, etc., is forbidden. The instruction must be given objectively.

Sciences.

The work in science touches such matters as come in connection with practical daily life: in physiology, the structure and care of the human body; in botany, the native plants and trees and their uses, and poisonous plants, as well as those that contribute to our wants, but not native, such as cotton, tea, sugar and coffee plants; in zoology, domestic animals and the chief wild animals of Germany and other countries; also a study of birds, insects, etc., their habits, use, and protection; in mineralogy, the stones and rocks of the locality, discussion of most common minerals, such as salt, coal, iron, etc.; in physics, explanation of every-day phenomena, and where possible explanations of motion, sound, light, heat, magnetism, electricity, and of simple common machines. Experiments are to be made wherever possible. The main object to be sought in all science-work is to awaken an interest in natural phenomena, and to lead the children to careful observation.

Singing.

Hymns and national songs are taught from the notes, so that the pupils are able to sing accurately not only in the chorus, but also alone. They are also able to follow the notes so as readily to learn new music. Besides this the words of the songs are committed to memory, so that each child goes out into the world with a goodly number of songs and a fair knowledge of music.

Gymnastics.

Two hours a week of gymnastics are required of all pupils in the middle and upper grade, and recommended for the lowest grade. In city schools a very careful course is marked out which seeks to develop all parts of the body harmoniously. Girls also have gymnastics in city school systems, but this is not possible very generally in the country.

Needlework.

Needlework is given to girls two hours a week and is everywhere obligatory. It begins with the middle grade, and includes knitting, plain sewing, fine sewing, mending, embroidery, etc.

The above is the normal course required throughout Prussia. As we have already indicated, city schools are able to go much beyond these requirements. While this minimum must be given, it rests with each community to decide how much farther they will go and what modifications they will make to meet local conditions. The state discountenances in all branches of study simple memorizing of material that is not understood. It lays down the common pedagogical principles of *from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex, from the near at hand to the remote*, and asks all teachers to apply them in their method of instruction.

We present here the programmes of two kinds of schools, which will sufficiently illustrate the daily work.

PROGRAMME FOR SCHOOLS OF ONE TEACHER.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
1	I. } Religion II. } Catechism III.	Religion Bible History	Religion Bible-reading ‡ Language ‡ Religion	Religion Catechism	Religion Bible History	Religion Bible-reading ‡ Language ‡ Religion
2	I. } History II. } III.	Language	Language	Geography	Natural Science	Singing Language
3	I. } Geography II. } Religion III. } Language	Language ‡ Religion ‡ Language	Arithmetic	History ‡ Religion ‡ Language	Language ‡ Religion ‡ Language	Arithmetic
4	I. } Arithmetic II. } Language III. } Arithmetic	Geomeury Language	Gymnastics for boys and Needlework for girls	Arithmetic ‡ Language ‡ Arithmetic	Language	Gymnastics & Needlework
5	I. } Language II. } Religion III. } Language	Natural Science Language		Language ‡ Arithmetic ‡ Language		
6	I. } Drawing II. } Language III. } Arithmetic	Singing		Drawing Language ‡ Language ‡ Arithmetic		

Explanations:

1. The hours are indicated by 1, 2, 3, etc., as it is left to localities to decide at what hour school shall begin. By this plan the children would have to return only three afternoons during the week, three being free.

2. The numbers I., II., and III. indicate the three grades into which all schools in Prussia, whether of one teacher or many, are divided. Each of these may be again divided into two classes, making six classes in the school, when the conditions admit of such subdivision. The III. division is the lowest, the II. the middle, and the I. the upper. (See page 81.)

3. The dash indicates absence of that class; thus in the first hour the III. grade is absent every day of the week excepting Wednesdays and Saturdays, thereby leaving the teacher all of his time for the older grades.

4. The term "language" as used here covers speaking, spelling, reading, and writing, which go hand in hand in instruction.

5. The programme is so arranged that in many cases two grades, especially the higher ones, are employed together, and sometimes the whole school, as in language the second hour on Wednesday, arithmetic the third hour on Wednesday and Saturday, etc. This recognizes the fact that some subjects can be treated profitably with children of considerably different ages, the smaller children absorbing from the older ones and gaining a vast amount of information that would not come to them if they sat in a room containing only one class. On the other hand, individual class-work is given, as in the first hour on Wednesday and Saturday, the third hour on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday, etc., when the I. and II. grades are busy with seat-work while the teacher gives the whole hour to the III. grade. Indeed, the III. grade is divided into two divisions, each receiving a half hour of instruction and

a half hour of seat-work alternately. In some schools where there is a large number of pupils one of the best pupils is taken as a monitor or helper. It is his duty to have charge of those doing seat-work, assisting, overseeing, and keeping them at work. He also assists in looking over exercise-books and is a great assistance to the teacher. Children having had this experience often acquire a liking for the work, and if they show tact and ability therein are recommended by the teacher as candidates for the preparatory schools of the teachers' seminaries, in order ultimately to become teachers.

We also give a programme for schools having three teachers, in order that comparisons can be made. This plan needs simply to be extended to apply to schools of any number of teachers.

Referring to the table, it may be remarked:

1. This programme gives the first teacher 26 hours per week with the I. grade, the second teacher 28 hours with the II. grade, and the third teacher 24 hours in the III. grade and 6 hours in the I. grade.

2. With three teachers the programme can be made more simple than with one teacher. It will be noticed that the subjects on Monday are repeated on Thursday, those of Tuesday on Friday, and those of Wednesday on Saturday.

3. In this programme the younger classes are free the fourth hour instead of the first, as in the preceding programme.

PROGRAMME FOR SCHOOLS OF THREE TEACHERS.

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
1	I. Religion (Bible History) II. ditto III. ditto	I. Religion (Catechism) II. ditto III. ditto	I. † Religion (Bible-read'g) ‡ Language II. ditto III. ditto	I. Religion (Bible History) II. ditto III. ditto	I. Religion (Catechism) II. ditto III. ditto	I. † Religion (Bible-read'g) II. ditto III. ditto
2	I. Language II. " " III. "	I. Language II. " " III. "	I. Language II. " " III. "	I. Language II. " " III. "	I. Language II. " " III. "	I. Language II. " " III. "
3	I. Arithmetic II. " " III. "	I. Arithmetic II. " " III. "	I. Geometry II. Drawing III. Language	I. Arithmetic II. " " III. "	I. Arithmetic II. " " III. "	I. Geometry II. Drawing III. Language
4	I. Geography II. — III. —	I. Nat. Science II. Language —	I. History II. Home Geog- raphy —	I. Geography — —	I. Nat. Science — —	I. History II. Home Geog- raphy —
5	I. Language II. History III. Gymnastics	I. Drawing II. Nat. Science III. Language	— — —	I. Nat. Science II. History III. Gymnastics	I. Drawing II. Nat. Science III. Language	— — —
6	I. Gymnastics or Needlework II. Singing III. —	I. Singing II. Gymnastics or Needlework III. Singing	— — —	I. Gymnastics or Needlework II. Singing III. —	I. Singing II. Gymnastics or Needlework III. Singing	— — —

CHAPTER XV.

METHOD OF INSTRUCTION.

A GREAT deal of freedom is given the teacher as to manner of presenting a subject. There are abundant opportunities for him to show his individuality and to present his subjects in his own way. And yet there are many things in common in the manner of teaching which are discovered in the young teacher as well as in the old, in the country school as well as in the city school, in the school

where all grades are taught by one teacher
Uniformity of method. as well as in schools having many teachers.

This uniformity of method is doubtless owing to the fact that nearly all of the teachers are trained in the teachers' seminaries, having practically the same course of study, to the general course of study for all of the schools, to the long periods of service of teachers which lead to fixed habits of teaching, and to the traditions of the past.

The following are the general characteristics which are found in schools everywhere in Germany:

1. A school period is not a "recitation hour," but an "instruction hour" (Unterrichtsstunde). The object is to give instruction, and not hear lessons. By means

of instruction the pupils learn, hence there are not alternate periods of study and recitation, as in the American schools. The pupils are under the instruction of the teacher all of the

time they are in school. In America it is the general practice to give the pupil at least as much time to prepare his lessons as is taken in reciting them. Aside from that he

Not a "recitation" hour but an "instruction" hour.

must do some work at home, sometimes a great deal. In the German schools, on the contrary, but little time is given to prepare lessons, nor has the pupils much to do at home. The German teacher expects his pupils to practically know the lesson when he gets through with his instruction. He may give his pupils seat-work to do, particularly in a mixed school, where the time must be divided among several classes, and also some home-work. This home-work is examples in arithmetic, drawing maps, composition, exercises in writing, etc. But to assign so many pages to be learned, or such a topic to be prepared, is not the practice. The home- and seat-work is to follow the instruction of the teacher rather than precede it. It is intended to fix the knowledge already obtained, to test the thoroughness of it, and to furnish employment for the pupils, more of the mechanical sort, such as drawing, writing, etc., which can be done alone. Individual work is never required without previous preparation under the direction of the teacher.

In the first school years but very little home-work is expected of the children, and in later years probably not more than an average of one hour a day. Of course this applies to common schools, which are under discussion, and not to the higher schools, in which very much more home-work is required, but in which the method of instruction is similar to that of the lower schools.

2. The method of instruction is that of imparting. The teacher imparts, and the pupil receives. For example, suppose the subject be history: The teacher relates the facts and events, and then questions the pupils as to the facts imparted. The same is true in reading; at the beginning the teacher pronounces the phonic sound and the pupil repeats it after him; and so on throughout all of the subjects taught. In many cases

At the most
an average
of one hour
a day of
home study.

The impart-
ing method
of teaching
employed.

the pupil has no text-book, the whole of his knowledge of the subject being received from the teacher. Each pupil has a blank book for each subject in which he enters work that has been mastered, the teacher dictating, or it being copied from the blackboard. These exercise-books are models of cleanliness, neatness, correct language, good penmanship, and accuracy. They are examined by the teacher,

Use and importance of the exercise books.

corrected, and criticised. They are an important factor in the education of the child, as they show the results of his work and inculcate excellent habits. While they cost a great deal of labor to the teacher, they put the finishing touch upon work, and therefore are considered a good expenditure of time. As the school-inspector and visitors may see these books, the children take great pains to have them correct as well as neat.

This method of instruction makes the pupil almost entirely dependent upon the teacher for all of his information, and he soon comes to accept what is given without question, and in many matters without much thought. As the school has no library for his use, and as he has no books of his own, there is no alternative but for the pupil to accept his teacher as his encyclopædia. Hence when the child leaves school, while full of information on the subjects of the school course and such other matters as his teacher has been able to teach him, while he is trained in those subjects thoroughly and understands them, yet he has not learned to help himself, to go to books for information. Being separated then from his teacher, his chief source of information, his education is apt to cease as soon as he leaves school. That such a method is faulty goes without saying. The child must be led to go to books, to make research, to experiment and invent, to think for himself, and then his education will continue long after his school-days are over.

The German child when he leaves school usually settles into his sphere of life, content with the knowledge he possesses, inasmuch as he has fulfilled the requirements of the law, satisfied with his lot, and with but few aspirations for anything higher. True, it is difficult for him to earn his living. He must work long hours and for little pay, and therefore has neither the time nor the means for self-improvement. But the fact of his having these hindrances does not fully account for the little interest which the common people of Germany show in their own intellectual growth; the difficulty is with the method of instruction, which fails to make the pupils independent, and leaves them helpless as soon as they leave school and no longer have their fountain of knowledge, the teacher, at hand.

Weakness of
the impart-
ing method.

In the schools for the better classes practically the same method obtains. But the children are not obliged to enter immediately upon hard work for daily bread as soon as they leave school, and therefore they show more inclination to intellectual matters, though not as much as could be desired. So the trouble must be charged to the two causes, the method of instruction and the conditions of life.*

3. The teachers never make use of a book in giving instruction. They have the matter well in hand, which comes from the splendid general preparation received by them in the teachers' seminary, and from the special preparation made for the individual lesson. Thereby the teacher is able to throw his whole soul into his teaching, and his work is not hampered nor made ineffective by dependence upon a text-book. He holds the attention of

* Frau Schrader, the neice of Froebel, and the leader in the Berlin Kindergarten work, said to the writer: "We are preached to, and lectured to, and poured into by teachers in the schools, and still we as a people are made stupid by it."

his pupils, keeps them interested, and therefore has no trouble with discipline. He usually stands, though there is no rule forbidding him from sitting when he pleases.

4. In every possible way the instruction is illustrated by objects, drawings, and concrete examples. And yet objects are not used except as a means to an end. They are not used for the purpose of attracting interest in themselves, but for the purpose of making clear the lesson which the teacher has in mind. Therefore simple objects, few in number, are used so as not to detract from the main purpose. Thus in teaching a number the reckoning apparatus is generally the only object used. The use of many kinds of objects would awaken interest in the objects themselves, thereby, in part at least, defeating the purpose, which is the teaching of the number. The use of objects is abandoned when they are no longer necessary; and yet if a child finds it difficult to comprehend a subject illustration is always used, even to the oldest pupils.

Use of comparatively few objects.

Short answers the rule, but in full sentences.

5. The pupils sit erect and quiet on long benches, which sometimes reach entirely across the schoolroom, attentive to the instruction of the teacher. When he asks a question, they raise the index finger until he calls on one, who rises and gives the answer, always in full sentences. The questions usually require short answers, the pupils even in the upper classes seldom being called upon to give a continued series of original statements, as is necessary in the discussion of a topic, for example. Material that has been committed to memory of course is repeated as a whole. When the teacher wishes a pupil to come to the blackboard or map, all that sit between him and the end of the seat must step out to let him pass. Only one or two can be called up at once, as there is blackboard space only for the teacher's use. The seating arrangement is therefore very inconven-

ient, but the teacher does not call many pupils to the front.

6. The lesson usually begins with a short review of the preceding lesson to serve as a connecting link between the old and the new material. The teacher thus fixes the knowledge already imparted, discovering that which has not been fully mastered, and paves the way for the new lesson. He then states what is to be done in the present hour, and proceeds to give the instruction as already described in No. 2. Lastly, he questions his pupils upon the lesson just taught, repeating his questions in different forms until satisfied that the pupils have gained the required mastery of the subject.

These are the prominent features of classroom-work in a German school. The teacher insists upon rigid discipline that has a tendency to repress rather than stimulate, to hinder rather than awaken mental activity. On the other hand, it is a mistaken idea that it is harsh or unreasonable. One is apt to attribute the rigid manner to a lack of humane feeling. Such a conclusion is far from the truth. Respect for law is incorporated into all branches of German life—in the army, in official life, in the whole system of society. The teacher expects it of his pupils, and the pupils fully expect to give it. Perhaps under this system of government, and under the condition of things in Germany, the present form of discipline in the schools is necessary. It certainly is not a hardship, and there are many arguments in its favor. The children learn obedience, respect for law, promptness and faithfulness in the discharge of duty, respect for their seniors, proper carriage and control of the body, power of concentrating the whole attention upon the matter in hand, and constancy of purpose. All of these are important factors in education, factors that are too often neglected in the American schools.

While this side of the German teacher's character stands out perhaps most prominently, and to a superficial observer will appear as the only side, there is another side which shows him to be the most humane of men, to really love his pupils, and to most earnestly seek their truest good and real welfare. **Deep interest of teachers in their pupils.** This shows itself in the schoolroom and out of it; in a personal interest in the child, and in an interest in his home and family; while engaged in school exercises and while on excursions where children and teacher come into closest relations of sympathy and love; in the interest shown in the moral development and the immortal welfare of the beings committed to his care. The German teacher loves his pupils with fatherly love, therefore he can administer discipline when necessary, because he looks into the future and will spare the child from greater pain and possible ruin. On the other hand, the children not only have respect for their teacher, but also love, knowing him to be their best friend.

CHAPTER XVI.

APPLICATION.

WE now turn to the discussion of what the last three chapters suggest for the American school. Many of the ideas have already been adopted in many schools since Horace Mann visited the schools of Germany and wrote his Reports, and under the influence of Col. Parker later. So many of the reforms indicated have already made a beginning, and in some instances have outstripped Germany herself.

We shall discuss the lessons that are to be gathered from the German schools that will be a benefit to America, and not those that are inapplicable. What can we apply for the good of our schools is the all-important question, and not the criticism of wrong practices, nor the presumptuous attempt to reform the German schools. There is much that is good in them, and it is the good, wherever found, that we should appropriate. The design is to suggest reforms which must enlist the combined action of school authorities and teachers in order to be successfully carried out. We therefore lay down the following propositions suggested by the German school system:

Seek out the
good and
ignore the
bad.

1. *The oversight of school authorities should extend to all schools, private as well as public.* As the state fixes a minimum of training necessary for citizenship, and as it guarantees to parents the right to choose whether that shall be attained in public schools or in private manner, to be assured that the required end is reached the state must

oversee the private instruction as well as the public. **Freedom as to manner of educating their children left to the family.** This does not interfere with the freedom of private schools excepting to require that at least the minimum course of study is carried out. The state clearly has a right to insist upon the education of all children as a means of self-preservation, and therefore must have a right to inspect the institutions that carry it out.

2. *Too many examinations should be avoided, the judgment of the teacher as to fitness for promotion being better than any examination.* That there should be examinations is fully recognized, but they should be carried out so as to awaken as little excitement as possible, and should not be the single test of fitness for promotion. They may enter as a factor, but only as a small one. Their object should be to show the weaknesses of the instruction, so that the same errors can be avoided in the future; to crystallize the knowledge in the mind of the child; to strengthen him in manner of expression, whether it be written **Object of examination.** or oral; and to give him self-command and readiness in bringing forward the knowledge he possesses. They should not be crowded into two or three days' time, but plenty of time should be taken, covering perhaps two or three of the last weeks of the term or year. They should occur at the time of the regular lesson, thereby not requiring a special programme for examinations, and without disturbing the order of the whole school. They should be conducted by the regular teacher under the direction of the principal of the school. The more they can be considered as unusual events, the more quietly they can be conducted, the more effective they will be, and the more nearly they will answer their pedagogical purpose.

3. *All of the common schools of a state should be graded according to one general plan.* This plan should be so simple that the district school could meet its requirements,

Village and city school systems would be free to go as far beyond those requirements as they are able to, but in conformity with the fundamental requirements. There should be three general divisions of the school course, and the same general names of primary, intermediate, and grammar which are now used could be continued. The country school, graded on this basis, has an immense advantage over the present unorganized, unsystematized condition of things. The teacher then would have some guide for his work, and it would be especially helpful to a new teacher. There would then be a definite purpose marked out which would act as a great blessing to the schools. When pupils change to another school, there would be a common ground for grading them, so that there would not be so great loss of time. Of course in schools where possible, as at present, there would be subdivisions into as many classes as are necessary, but even these should conform to the minimum requirements.

All schools divided into three general grades or divisions.

4. *The main object of the teacher's work is to instruct, and not hear lessons.* This does not mean that the German "imparting" method should be employed, nor does it mean that the American "recitation" method should be continued. We have pointed out the vital weakness of the former. (See page 105.) Measured by apparent results the "imparting" method, as practised in Germany, is not an unqualified success. It does not discharge the child from the school with a desire for more knowledge, and with ability to gain it independently.

On the other hand, the "hearing lessons" method, in general practice in America, while excusable in an untrained teacher (if one may use the term), cannot be accepted as the best that should be employed. The middle way between these two methods is the one that will secure

the best educational results. The teacher must not rob the child of the pleasure of discovering for himself, and at the same time destroy all desire for original, independent work, as a strict adherence to the German method certainly does, nor must he, on the other hand, simply assign so many pages for him to learn without previous explanation or instruction, and then afterwards "hear" what he has learned. This method is worse than the former in that it may be carried out by untrained teachers, and makes possible their admission to the schoolroom. The German method can only be carried out by well-trained instructors. The happy medium between the two is what is desired, namely, the introduction and explanation of the new lesson by the teacher sufficient to awaken interest, then remove difficulties that are too great for the child, and set him on the way to master the work set before him. This will awaken self-reliance without discouraging, give incentive to work without depending upon the teacher, and set the child to think for himself, which is the highest end to be sought.

Child must be led to find out for himself.

Happy medium between the "imparting" and the "hearing" method to be chosen.

Highest type of teaching.

To give this kind of instruction requires the most skilful talent and teachers of the very best pedagogical training. To know when to help and when to leave alone, how to incite to self-activity, how to lead the child and not carry him, how to bring out the best that is in the child and inspire him to an eager love and desire for knowledge, requires the highest type of teaching ability.

Herbart's *Formal Steps* of instruction give a key to all that the teacher should do in a period of instruction. They are as follows:

a. *The preparation*, which includes the bringing together of all of the necessary materials, the review of the

preceding lesson so that the new knowledge shall be joined to and built upon the old, and the awakening of the interest in the subject to be presented by some illustration, anecdote, or other means, so that the class is in expectation of something to come.

b. The presentation of the new material. This calls for the skill of the teacher in the development of the lesson to bring the new truths home to the understanding of the children. The teacher should dwell upon each point until it is clear to the minds of his pupils, and by statement and questioning bring the matter to their comprehension.

c. The association. The new ideas should be associated with old ones and be brought to form a part of the thought-structure of the child. Thus the child apperceives the new, appropriates it to himself, and it becomes a part of his intellectual property. If the process of association is omitted, much knowledge is brought to the threshold of consciousness, but never goes any farther, and is therefore lost.

d. The Review. The object of review is to fix, to bind together with past lessons, to make sure that all has been comprehended. The late Prof. Stoy used to say the watchword of the school-teacher must be, "Review, review, everlasting review."

e. The application. Finally, the new material must be applied to the practical things of life, its use shown. Pupils must be tested as to whether they have sufficiently understood to make application with original examples. In this way the teacher not simply imparts, but sets the pupils to original thinking and prepares them for further research and study.

This is the general plan of a "recitation hour," though all of these steps will not be necessary for each recitation. This becomes not only a period of recitation, but also a

period of instruction, and the latter characteristic largely predominates, as it very properly should.

5. *The natural development of the child is best attained by means of object-teaching.* Perhaps American schools have applied this principle more generally and more successfully than any other that the German schools teach. From the time of Comenius to Pestalozzi this truth has been brought forward more and more. The teachings of Pestalozzi have exerted a wide influence throughout Germany, until the practice everywhere is to use objects and experiments wherever they will assist in instruction. The apparatus is always of most simple character. The tendency in many American schools is to make use of many objects, and the chief attention of the pupils naturally is given to the varied, attractive objects rather than to the main end to be sought.

This is clearly an error from a pedagogical standpoint. Every bit of attention that the object attracts in and for itself is just so much withdrawn from the main object in view, the lesson to be taught. Therefore objects and experiments should be used to teach the truth to be taught, and should never be used when they are not needed. In a word, when an object will serve a real purpose, it is used, otherwise not; and this use, while most frequent in the early school years, should never be omitted, however old the pupil, when it is needed to illustrate, to establish, or to make clear a truth.

There remains another very important subject suggested by the German schools for us to consider, and that is religion in the schools. Because of its great importance, and because of the difficulties connected with the question, we shall devote a special chapter to it.

CHAPTER XVII.

RELIGION IN THE SCHOOLS.

THE corner-stone of the German course of study in the common schools is religion. More hours per week are given to it (5-6 throughout the whole course) than to any other subject, with the exception of German, which includes, however, reading, writing, spelling, and grammar. From the first the main purpose of the schools was declared to be "to train the youth to be God-fearing citizens." The late Prof. Stoy of Jena asserted that "not only the head and hand, but also the heart, must be educated." The work of education has been declared to be the formation of character, and there can be no well-rounded character if the heart-culture has been neglected. All of the powers of the individual must be well balanced and harmonious in their development. An abnormal development in one direction to the neglect of other powers does not produce the ideal man. Every educator in Germany recognizes the importance of religious instruction in the schools, and even those political parties that demand the removal of the influence of the Church from the schools do not for a moment think of throwing religion out of them. Some persons would lessen the number of hours, and others would change the character of the instruction. Prof. Paulsen would do away with the confessional character of the instruction, leaving that to the Church and home, and retain the historical and literary treatment of the Bible, and the historical development of the

**Importance
of religion in
the schools.**

**All agree
that religion
must be
retained in
the schools.**

Church. The teachers generally would leave the instruction as it is, but would have the relations of the Church, or rather its authority over religious instruction in the schools, done away with, not because of the religious question, but because the pastors are not pedagogically trained men. (See page 156.)

The value of religious instruction and its necessity are everywhere recognized, and it is not probable that any material change will take place for a long time to come. The instruction in the evangelical schools is given by the regular teachers, that of the Catholic schools sometimes by priests who receive no pay from the state, while in the higher schools the religious instruction is given by special teachers theologically trained. Each child receives special training from his pastor for some time before confirmation as a preparation for that important event in the child's life. This, however, is done outside of the school. The fact that the Church is the mother of the schools, historically, having long had them under her charge, that Church and state are united, that the people are nearly all included in the two general religious bodies, evangelistic and Catholic, that all schools are confessional on these two lines, makes the problem of religion in the schools in Germany a vastly different one from that of America. The absence of traditions governing the question, the division of the Evangelical

The question in America very different from that of Germany.

Church into many sects, the utter severance of Church and state in the latter country, make the problem very difficult to solve. And yet its solution is of the utmost interest to thoughtful educators and well-wishers of the nation. We are therefore brought face to face with the following questions: 1. Is religious instruction a necessary part of education? 2. Are the American youth properly receiving such instruction? 3. If not, ought the state to undertake it? 4. How shall it be done under the peculiar existing con-

ditions? Taking up these questions in order, let us discuss:

1. *Is religious instruction a necessary part of education?* All educators agree in answering this question affirmatively. The aim of education is to form character, and there can be no well-rounded character where the religious side has been neglected. The hand, the head, and the heart as well must be cultivated. Where the first two alone are developed, the best and most important part of our being remains, that which has to do not alone with our immortal welfare, but also with every side of life here among our neighbors and our fellow-men. Every human being possesses the religious instinct, whether it be the savage with his misty notions of the Great Spirit and the happy hunting-grounds, or the most civilized and intelligent Christian, enlightened by the revelations of the Divine Spirit. The longing for something higher, for something beyond the sphere of this life's activities, for something that comforts and sustains in this life and affords hope for the future, is inherent in every human breast. Therefore there can be no proper development of the child in which his religious side is omitted. "Education in the hands of a wicked person is a dangerous weapon," said one of America's greatest statesmen. The teacher must see in each child the future man, and no teacher can conceive of a perfect ideal man, largely his own creation, whose heart-powers, whose religious character, have not also been developed with all of his other powers. It is not sufficient to train the child for the few years of life he has to spend here, but he must also be prepared for that more important life, the hope and expectation of which so largely influence the present.

And so we say that religious instruction is necessary:

a. *For psychological reasons.* The whole being of the child is not developed if the religious side is omitted, and

without that the education is incomplete. The soul seeks light, and it is the duty of education to unfold it; from the earliest years the child seeks knowledge of the infinite, and parents and teachers must open all fountains of truth that they possess to satisfy that longing; during the early years while the child is in school the heart is most susceptible to religious truth, and therefore these years must be employed in establishing and fixing it;* the character is not well rounded and the powers of the soul developed if this vital side of education is neglected.

b. For moral reasons. The religion of Jesus is the best of all religions, not simply because it is a divine revelation, but also because it furnishes the best moral code. **The Christian religion is the most moral religion.** The basis of morals is the Christian religion. How, then, can a structure of morals be built without taking into account the foundation upon which they stand, and without which they could not be maintained for a moment? The young man who leaves school without a proper sense of duty, without respect for the personal and property rights of his fellow-men, without a knowledge of right and wrong—such a young man takes but little with him from the school that goes to make up real manhood; indeed, he is quite liable to become a danger to society. It is a serious question whether the increase of peculation and the deterioration of public morals are not a result of the complete secularization of the schools. Such would certainly be a natural result if it be found that there are no other sufficient means of securing the necessary moral training. Concerning this we shall make inquiry later.

c. For practical reasons. There is hardly a subject in the school curriculum that is not closely connected with

* Prof. Earl Barnes thinks after much investigation that the child is most orthodox from 11-14 years of age. After that time the period of unbelief begins if he is not established.

religion in some phase, and the abolition of religion from the schools therefore prevents the teaching of a great deal of truth. Take history, for example: How can the history of New England be taught without mention of the Puritans, and of what use is bare mention of the Puritans without discussion of the sublime religious purpose which was the mainspring of all of their motives and actions? Or the history of Germany, omitting the Reformation and Luther, the Thirty Years' War and Gustavus Adolphus? One can hardly take up any period of the history of any country without being compelled to discuss religious topics, or else omit the very vital thing of the whole matter.

Again, take geography: How often political divisions have been decided upon religious grounds. Then the races of the earth and their religions form an important part of that study. Teachers may explain the religions of Confucius, Buddha, or Mohammed, but are not allowed a word concerning the most vital matter of all to their pupils, the religion of Jesus!

And so it is with astronomy, with all branches of science, and with almost every school subject; it is not only most natural and easy to awaken a reverent spirit, but sometimes it is almost unavoidable. Is it any wonder that the Germans consider religion the corner-stone of the educational structure? So for practical reasons freedom to teach religious topics would remove many obstacles needlessly placed in the way all through the school work, and the wise teacher, whatever be his confession or that of his pupils, would give offense to none, and parents of all shades of religious belief would be satisfied, because their children were being taught the whole truth.

2. *Are the American youth properly receiving such instruction?* The state relegates the religious instruction to the family, the family largely to the Church, and the Church to the Sunday-school. It does not require a close

observer to see that there is a decided disposition on the part of parents to leave the religious training of their children with the Sunday-school just as they leave the secular training with the day-school. The Germans require five hours of religious instruction a week, at least, for eight years, by trained teachers, attendance being regular. With us there is one hour of Sunday-school per week, with less than half an hour's instruction, often by poor teachers, attendance being voluntary and generally irregular. As an actual fact our youth obtain a very meagre knowledge of the Bible, no knowledge of Christian literature, and, unless they go to college, but little instruction in ethics. Thus an important part of the education of every man is clearly sadly neglected. No man can be called well educated who has not a knowledge of sacred history and literature, to say nothing of the doctrines of the Christian Church.

But this is not the whole statement of the case by any means. The statistics of the American Sunday-school Union show that the total number of Sunday-school scholars, including adults and infants,* is only about fifty per cent of the total number of children of school age, 5-21 years. So more than half of the youth of the land do not have even the meagre, irregular, unsatisfactory instruction of the Sunday-school; and as the parents who do not send their children to the Sunday-school are least of all apt to teach them the Bible at home, we are driven to the painful conclusion that a large portion of the growing youth of America receive scarcely any religious instruction.

Having established the position that religious instruction is a necessary part of education, and that the American

* Under "adults" come persons often well along in years who belong to the Bible classes, and under "infants" many children who have not yet reached their fifth year.

youth are not getting such education, we turn to the third question:

3. *Ought the state to undertake it?* That the state shall undertake the religious training of the youth in America, where state and Church are separate, in the same sense as in Germany, where they are united, cannot be expected. But as such instruction is necessary as preparation for good citizenship, and as there is no other sufficient means of securing it, it seems clear that the state must do it. But how far shall the state go in the matter of religious instruction? Clearly the state cannot enter the field of dogmatic theology, nor teach any particular confession. These must ever in America be left with the family and the Church in her various branches and shades of belief. But the history and literature of the Bible, so essential to the education of every individual, certainly can be taught in the public schools without offense to any one. Then, too, the moral lessons taught by the Bible as nowhere else should form a basis of systematic moral instruction. Take, for example, the story of Joseph revealing himself to his brethren when they came down to Egypt to buy corn: there is nothing in literature which furnishes such an abundance of material for moral instruction. The crime of the brethren, repaid by the magnanimity, generosity, brotherly love, unselfishness, forgiveness of Joseph, awakening in them a sense of shame and penitence for their wrong, furnishes most forcible illustrations for classroom use which could not fail to bear fruit. And yet because this beautiful story is found in the Bible it may not be used in the school for laying the foundations of right thinking and acting in the lives of our pupils!

The state cannot teach theology.

The story of Joseph as a basis of moral lessons.

Then the life of Jesus and his eminent disciples of all ages should be studied, not for the purpose of developing

a system of faith, but to discover the good done by them, to furnish examples of good lives, and to learn the mighty influence they exerted, and the impulses they started to make the world better. The study of Jesus, Paul, St. Augustine, Bonifacius, and Luther certainly cannot be dangerous to the youth of any nation; certainly not in comparison with the study of Alexander, Cæsar, or Napoleon.

These three things therefore should be taught in schools under control of the state:

1. The history and literature of the Bible.
2. The moral lessons of the Bible based upon its abundant illustrations.
3. The life of Jesus and his followers as an inspiration and example to the children of the present generation.

This would leave the confessional character of religion still to the family and the Church, and would not trespass upon this most sacred of rights, but would supplement and assist it. Such instruction would be welcomed by parents of all shades of faith, and Catholic and Protestant, Jew and Gentile, believer and unbeliever, would feel that the common school, the common ground on which all meet with equal rights, is doing something to train and educate the noblest faculties of their children.

This brings us to the last and most difficult question of all, namely:

4. *How shall religious instruction in the above sense be introduced into the American schools?** As most of the

* We use the term "religious instruction" in the absence of any better term, though in the narrow, strict sense it will be recognized that the term is a misnomer. But the state must educate for citizenship, and the above requirements are the least that can be asked of the state. With the preparation thus given the family and the Church will be able to supplement the work done with the purely confessional side, and thus the child be given the complete religious training so necessary to full-rounded character pointed out at the

states have passed laws forbidding the use of the Bible in the public schools, the first step is the repeal of those laws and the express permission to use it under the above limitations. It is possible that the expulsion of the Bible from the schools has worked more serious results than those who demanded it had expected. Eminent Catholics have indicated as much. The readmission of it as a text-book of sacred history and literature, and of morals, would not mean a tendency to unite state and Church, nor a trespassing of the one upon the rights of the other. It would simply be the allowing of the use of the book for its own worth, and for its value in deriving the lessons to be used in the training of an important side of the human character, the neglect of which is a danger to the state. It would not prevent the use of a St. James, a Douay, or a revised version, as each individual may please. The broad-minded teacher is not bound to any particular text-book, but teaches his subjects topically, allowing his pupils to obtain the facts from many sources. The Bible would not be restored to its old place to be used as a part of recognized religious exercises in the school, but as a text-book with other text-books; thus the old objections to its use fall to the ground.

Repeal of laws excluding the Bible necessary.

The second step is the adoption by the state board of education of a minimum course of religious study. In the absence of a state board this could be done by the highest school authority or by the state legislature. All of the schools of the state should be required to conform to this minimum course in religion the same as in other subjects (see page 124), but each in-

Religion a part of the school course.

beginning of this chapter. And in such families as neglect all religious training of their children, at least a great deal will have been gained. Perhaps it would be less objectionable to Americans if the title "Ethical Instruction" were used, though that does not quite cover the ground.

dividual locality would be at liberty to enlarge and extend the course according to its ability and inclination. This course should include for the primary grades stories from the Bible; for the intermediate grades continuation of the stories, with introduction to the history and literature suitable to the capacity of the pupils; and for the grammar grades Bible history and literature, with study of the great characters of the Christian world. The moral lessons to be derived from this rich material are never to be lost sight of, but are to be practically applied wherever possible.

A map of Palestine is essential for every school and should be freely used in connection with the instruction. Two full hours a week should be given to this subject. In our already overcrowded courses of study this may seem difficult; but if the subject is as important as we believe it to be a place must be found for it. It will be found, however, that the material furnished in religious instruction supplements many other subjects, so that the number of hours now devoted to them can be shortened without loss in general results, and indeed even without loss to these subjects themselves. For example, the reproduction

**Religious
instruction
would supple-
ment other
work.**

of the stories from the Bible supplements language; the study of Bible history and literature supplements history, reading, and literature; the study of Palestine, Paul's journeys, the spread of Christianity, supplements geography. Therefore religious study can be introduced with no loss to any of the subjects now taught, but with an immense gain to the course of study, and a vast enrichment of the fund of knowledge with which our pupils are sent out into the world.

Finally, every opportunity should be used to inform the people of the purpose of the proposed religious instruction in the schools. The people of America are jealous of their religious freedom, and anything that looks like trespassing

upon it is regarded with suspicion. But if they are made to see that this is no attempt in that direction—on the contrary, that it only makes their religious rights securer in that it makes their children intelligent concerning them; if they learn that this seeks to form a sound basis of morals, and prepares the way for them and their Church to introduce into the hearts and lives of their children their own peculiar tenets; in a word, if they are convinced that this movement seeks the best good of their children, they will be found, and can only be found, on the side of religious instruction in the common schools. Without the consent and active support of the parents no law can avail, and there can be but one result, and that is failure. Therefore by pen and voice all friends of education should seek to prepare the citizens of our country for this reform, which is of so great moment, not alone for our schools, but also for the youth who are to be the future parents, citizens, and rulers of our land.

Parents will not object if they understand the motive.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

THE school building in a village would hardly be distinguished from a residence in its exterior appearance. It is usually a two-story brick building, one floor being set apart for the residence of the family of the teacher, and the other for the school. In the city the buildings are of course much larger, being arranged for the accommodation in large cities of not more than a thousand children, and containing, besides the schoolrooms, a faculty-room, an audience- or assembly-hall, and living rooms for the principal and janitor. For location care is taken to secure a quiet street where there can never be an interference of the light from other buildings. In many cases the schools are erected in a court back from the street, where neither street noise nor shutting off of the light can ever disturb. As the sexes are separated wherever possible, in many cases a boys' school occupies one end of a large building and a girls' school the other end, both schools having common use of the same yard at different times, and each having its own faculty, from principal down. There must always be a school-yard or playground for the children, even though the children are seldom allowed to play in it. (See page 81.) The buildings are never more than three stories high and are always provided with wide and ample stairways. The classrooms lie on one side of the corridor only, requiring the buildings to be comparatively narrow, that is, wide enough for a corridor and for a classroom, say six feet for the corridor and

**Separate
schools for
the sexes.**

twenty to twenty-four feet for the classroom. The law requires that there must be at least six square feet of floor-surface to each child. Thus, if a room is intended for eighty pupils, the room would necessarily be say 20×30 feet, or if the number of pupils is sixty it might be 18×24 . The former is about the size of the rooms in most city schools.

The height of the ceiling is from 12 to 14 feet, and the windows are built high and wide, covering most of the wall-space on the one side, so as to give plenty of light. The law requires that the window-surface shall be equal to at least one fifth of the floor-surface. The last ten years have brought about a remarkable improvement in the lighting of schoolrooms, since Prof. Cohn of Breslau showed conclusively, after a great many experiments, and after examining a large number of children, that near-sightedness and other phases of weak eyes are directly traceable to badly lighted schoolrooms. While all new buildings are properly lighted, there are still a great many schoolrooms in which the light is bad. It is held that if the light is not sufficient to enable a child to read ordinary print held at arm's length it does not suffice. In case the building is near other buildings the ground floor is not to be used for classrooms.

The seats are always arranged so as to bring the light over the left side, never from the right or directly in front. Hooks for the clothing are placed in the corridors, and also in the schoolroom if the number in the hall does not suffice. Back of the teacher's desk is a blackboard, usually about 4×6 feet, and above this are hooks upon which the maps are hung as they are needed. The blackboard-space of American schools is never found. As blackboards are used only by the teacher, or by single pupils called up one at a time, the small blackboard answers all purposes. A cheap wooden cupboard serves as receptacle for copy-books,

and whatever apparatus the teacher may desire to put safely away.

In country schools the heating-apparatus consists of a coal-stove. In the cities hot-water pipe systems prevail with ventilation attachments. In some schools the thermometer is placed before a slit in the wall which enables the janitor to note the temperature of the room from outside without disturbing the class. A plate of glass over the slit prevents the outside air from coming in and disturbing the mercury. This secures a proper temperature, as the teacher, who is busy with his class and being all of the time in the room, is usually insensible to its temperature until it becomes very much out of the way.

In spite of all apparatus and of every precaution, our experience in German classrooms is that the ventilation is generally bad, sometimes dreadful. In most cases but little fresh air is let in even during recesses when the children are out; so from the beginning till the close of school no fresh air comes in except what may come in through the imperfect, insufficient ventilating-shafts.

A convention of German physicians and scientists have made the following suggestions concerning school buildings, especially in cities, which are generally carried out in the new buildings:

I. School-grounds.

The school-grounds must be in an open place where light and air are good, removed from the noise of the street, dry and well drained, and, where possible, on elevated ground, and supplied with good water. They must be large enough to afford three square metres space to each child besides the space occupied by the buildings. The playground should be covered with gravel; cement walks should lead to the main entrance.

II. *The Building.*

1. *The building* should face the south or southeast; the assembly-hall, the conference-room, and the stairs should face to the north; there must be a cellar or basement under the whole building.

2. *A building* which serves for both sexes should have separate entrances and stairways for each, which should be about six feet wide. The stairs should be of stone and the ascent should be easy. There should be iron grates before the threshold to serve as scrapers, and mats for cleaning the feet at the entrance.

3. *The corridor* should be wide, light, and well ventilated, with floors of stone or hard wood.

4. *The school-room* should be large enough to admit of four rows of double seats,* seven in a row, thus providing for not over 56 pupils, and with necessary space for teacher. This would require a room about 24×30 feet. The seats must meet the following requirements: 1. The distance from the floor must be such that when the child sits erect the feet shall rest squarely on the floor. 2. The width of the seat must be such that the child can sit **Requirements against the back, the legs bending at right angles as to seats.** angles at the knees. 3. The back of the seat must fit the natural curve of the back and yet be of a character to fix the habit of erect sitting. 4. The height of the desk should be such that the forearm rests naturally upon it without bending the body and without elevating the shoulder. The edge of the desk should be nearly over the edge of the seat, not over one to two inches removed. The desk should have a slant of from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches. Seats should be

* Double seats are seldom used, the custom being to use long benches with only one aisle through the middle besides the side-aisles. This enables more children to be brought into each room, which, though still necessary, is deplored by teachers and authorities,

arranged for two pupils only, thereby adding to the convenience and comfort of the pupils and the efficiency of the work.

The windows should be as high and wide as possible, and always on the left of the pupils. The temperature of the room should be kept at 68-70° Fahr., and the best means of ventilation should be adopted without regard to expense. The floors should be of hard wood and oiled. There should be separate wardrobes for the clothing, well lighted and heated.* The water-closets, especially for boys, should be outside of the school building, and should also be light and well ventilated.

III. *The Gymnasium.*

Every school should have its own gymnasium in order to give both sexes the proper physical training. A gymnasium from 60 to 80 feet long by 25 to 40 feet wide is sufficient for a school of 500 children. The windows should be high and the floor of hard wood. The fixed apparatus should be placed in one end of the room so as to leave plenty of space for free class exercises.

IV. *Dwelling for teachers.*

It is recommended that separate houses be built for such teachers as are entitled to free rent.† They should be on the school-grounds, so that the principal can have proper oversight of the school.

These recommendations have had a great influence for the improvement of school buildings in many parts of Germany, as they are the expression not alone of thoughtful

* This is a suggestion of utmost importance, but which we have never yet seen carried out in a German common school.

† Principals. Berlin is following this wise recommendation instead of furnishing rooms in the school building.

men, but of specialists who have made a careful study of the subject. Two of their recommendations have not as yet borne much fruit on account of the expense. These are their recommendation in regard to the seats, especially that seats shall not be for more than two pupils, and that in regard to ventilation. They recognize that as yet no system of ventilation has been found that is a complete success unless it is a system which has some means of propulsion, which, however, is very expensive.

Great effort is made to secure buildings possessing modern sanitary improvements. One of the newest buildings in Berlin, dedicated in 1895, has bathing facilities for the children where two hundred children can receive a shower-bath each day. The buildings are always kept very clean. They are built to economize expense, and with the exception of the assembly-hall, which is not used for morning exercises, but for public occasions, the walls are totally bare and unattractive. The law requires about six square feet of space to each child, and the school authorities meet the requirements of the law, and generally no more. Thus a classroom with its long benches filled with children always has the appearance of being crowded.

The locating of the school building back from the street in a court has great advantages. This is possible in German cities, which are not laid out in square blocks, but is not possible in most American cities. More spacious school-grounds are obtained, the buildings can be isolated so as to be assured of good light and air, and the classes cannot be disturbed by the noise of the street.

CHAPTER XIX.

SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS.

THE manner of supporting the schools is not uniform throughout Prussia. In some cases they are supported from lands, interest on funds, rents, etc., which for many years have been assigned to this purpose. Where these means are insufficient, the balance formerly was raised by tuition fees which the teacher was expected to collect. In most cases, however, the schools are supported by commune taxes, the state rendering assistance when needed. In 1889 the minister of culture recommended that tuition fees be abolished, which has generally been done.

The following table, showing the cost per each inhabitant for several periods during the last 30 years for common-school purposes, indicates an upward tendency which speaks well for Prussia:

COST OF COMMON SCHOOLS, IN MARKS, PER PERSON.

	1861.	1871.	1878.	1886.	1891.
In cities.....	2.01	3	4.92	4.78	5.48
In the country.....	1.44	1.80	3.22	3.72	4.49
In general.....	1.61	2.20	3.69	4.11	4.89

This shows an increase in the 30 years of more than one hundred and fifty per cent in cities, and nearly the same per cent in the country- and for the whole kingdom in general. The cost in Berlin for 1891 was 7 marks and 2 pfennigs for each inhabitant of the city.

The cost per pupil will be shown as follows:

COST, IN MARKS, FOR EACH PUPIL.

	1861.	1871.	1878.	1886.	1891.
In cities.....	14.64	23.10	33.67	33.59	39.99
In the country.....	8.80	10.72	18.40	19.79	24.78
In general.....	10.37	13.97	23.10	24.07	29.74

Thus it will be seen that the expense per pupil in cities has increased in the last 30 years nearly two hundred per cent, and that of the country districts and the kingdom as a whole in a still larger proportion.

A part of the teacher's remuneration consists of free house and fire-material; 42,910 teachers have these perquisites. Then there are school lands and other sources of producing funds for the support of the schools. The collection of tuition fees, formerly practised everywhere in Germany, has almost entirely disappeared in the common schools, though still required in the higher schools. In 1886 the tuition fees amounted to 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the total amount raised for school purposes, while in 1891 they were only 1 $\frac{84}{100}$ per cent, and now the common schools are free in nearly all places.

**Falling off
of tuition
fees.**

We have seen that each province of the kingdom of Prussia is divided into royal governments, over which there is a school board. This board fixes the salaries to be paid by each school under its jurisdiction.

The size of the school, cost of living, and ability of each school district are taken into account, and the amount fixed according to these conditions. As the members of this board are men of character and understand the conditions thoroughly, as fair a result is obtained as the limited means will allow. Of course the salaries in cities, where rent and cost of living are higher, are necessarily greater than in a small village, where living is inexpensive; besides, the ability to sustain better salaries is relatively greater in cities than in the country.

The manner of raising school moneys is varied in different parts of Prussia. There are five local sources through which the school gets support: 1. So-called school societies, established for the purpose of assisting poor communities and generally embracing several schools in their territory.

**Five local
sources of
school
moneys.**

2. Church funds, inherited lands, and other property set aside for school purposes.

3. Directly from the Church treasury.

4. Tuition charged each pupil.

5. Taxes collected on the property in the district, together with allowances from the so-called patrons and large landowners. And besides these there is assistance

6. From the state treasury.

The relative part each of the above sources bears in the support of the schools will be illustrated by the following table of moneys applied to teachers' salaries for 1892-93 for the whole kingdom:

TABLE OF SOURCES OF INCOME (IN MARKS).

	In Cities.	In the Country.	Total.
School societies.....	2,164,859	2,635,039	4,799,398
Income from inherited property..	564,005	5,980,390	6,544,395
Church funds.....	632,375	1,843,925	2,476,300
Local taxes.....	20,131,276	7,646,084	27,777,360
Tuition.....	1,033,171	345,812	1,378,983
State.....	10,818,467	29,223,792	40,042,259

An analysis of this table shows that the cities pay about two thirds of their own school expenses themselves, receiving about one third from the state, while the country districts pay about one sixth of their school expenses by tax, receive a like amount from various local funds, and the balance, or about two thirds of the whole expense, from the state.

The state pays for each school employing one teacher 400 marks; for schools employing more than one teacher 400 marks for the head-teacher, 200 marks for each regular male teacher, 150 marks for each regular female teacher, and 100 marks for each assistant* teacher of either sex.

* By assistant teacher (Hülfslehrer) is meant those just out of the seminary who are not yet appointed to fixed positions.

The total amount paid by Prussia out of state funds for common-school purposes in 1894 increased to about 53,000,000 marks.

The Minister of Public Instruction recommends, and the law requires, that tuition fees shall be entirely abolished as soon as possible. The settlement of this point rests with each community to decide for itself, and many communities have already made their schools entirely free, preferring to raise the necessary funds by tax rather than require payment of tuition.

The state
assists in
bearing the
school
burden.

The condition of things in regard to choice and support of teachers desired by the foremost schoolmen may be summed up as follows:

1. The choice of teachers to be relegated to each community for itself, the state reserving the right to ratify such choice.

2. Each community to pay the regular salaries of its teachers,* receiving assistance from the state when necessary.

3. The state to pay the sums required for the increase of salaries from time to time after periods of service, and to provide for pensions, and for widows and orphans.

Such a plan would keep the teachers independent, give them freedom of action, stimulate the interest of the community in its schools, and correspondingly limit the state in its prerogatives, thereby checking its tendency to absolutism in the management of schools.

* The amount received by the teacher when he first begins teaching (Grundgehalt).

CHAPTER XX.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS—PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

THE teachers of the common schools usually come from the ranks of the common people. Pupils that show aptitude in study and seem to possess more than ordinary talent are selected as candidates for the teacher's profession. Such pupils often act as monitors in the school, assisting the teacher in his work, especially where there are several classes under one teacher, as in a country school. The wishes of the parents, as well as the inclination of the boy, and the opinion of the teacher, pastor, and district school-inspector, are all taken into account. This means a great deal to a boy, as it raises him above the position in life which he otherwise would probably have to fill, assures him assistance from the state during the six years of preparation before him, and secures him, if he proves himself diligent and capable, a position of respect and influence among his fellow-men. Because of the importance of the teacher's position, because the state contributes largely to the means necessary for their support and education, great care is taken to select young men of excellent health, good habits, and such as show strong probabilities of making successful teachers.

So after completing his common-school course at the age of fourteen the boy is sent to the preparatory school, where he enters upon a three-years' course. The purpose of these preparatory schools is to connect the common-school course with the teachers' seminary. In some cases they are connected

directly with the seminary, making a six years' continued course in one school; but in most cases they are separate. Generally the preparatory schools are private institutions, though under state control and inspection, and receiving assistance from the state. The principle is recognized that it is the duty of the state to educate her teachers, and that duty extends also to the preparatory years, whether the work be done in private or in state institutions. The principal of the teachers' seminary of a district has oversight of all preparatory schools in his district, as they present the candidates for admission to his school. No preparatory school can be established without the consent of the government, so that the number of candidates is measured by the demand for teachers as shown by experience.

Under state control whether private or not.

There were 35 of these schools in Prussia in 1892, with 2305 pupils. In many cases boys can live at home and attend the school, thus keeping them under parental influence during these important years (14-17). The tuition charged each pupil is 36 marks a year, and the state adds about 90 marks for each pupil when it is shown that his parents are unable to pay for him. The state also further assists in the support of the pupils when they are needy. In 1892 the state paid 756,601 marks for the assistance of the preparatory schools, about $\frac{1}{3}$ of which was directly for the support of pupils.

Assistance of the state.

All pupils who enter a preparatory school for the teachers' seminary must meet the following conditions:

1. The candidate must bring a declaration from the father as to his ability to support his son during the course. If the father is unable to support him, it by no means excludes him, as we have seen above. But the exact situation must be stated. This statement must be certified to by the mayor of his place.

2. He must stand an oral and written examination covering all of the subjects of the common-school course.

3. The number of pupils in a school is limited to fifty, who are divided into two classes, the work of the lower class requiring one year, that of the higher class two years. The higher class is divided into two divisions, though in most subjects the two divisions are instructed together.

4. The course must be sufficient to fully prepare for admission to a teachers' seminary.

5. The pupils live in families, but under control and oversight of the school, and their conduct and manner of life are carefully looked after.

The purpose of these schools is to lay a foundation of general knowledge upon which the special training for teachers can be built. They are especially admonished to

Good habits, patriotism, and Christian fidelity. see that their pupils acquire good habits, learn to love the fatherland, and become established in Christian life and practice. The instruction

is largely objective, following the natural method of development. Self-activity and independence in thinking, accurate observation, good articulation, and fluency in speech are ends to which especial attention must be given.

The course embraces instruction in the subjects enumerated on the next page.

At about the age of seventeen these young men leave the preparatory school and enter the teachers' seminary for the direct and definite training which is to fit them for their life-work. These preparatory schools are necessary, first, because there are no other schools which furnish the proper

Necessity for preparatory schools of this kind. instruction between the common school and the seminary course during the years 14-17; and secondly, because other schools which furnish a somewhat correspondingly advanced instruction

are too expensive for the class of young men who fit themselves for the vocation of common-school teacher.

COURSE OF STUDY.

Course of Study in Preparatory Schools for Teachers.	{	Religion.	{	Reading
		German.		Writing.
				Spelling.
				Grammar.
	{	Mathematics.	{	Arithmetic.
		Geometry.		
	{	History.	{	
		Geography.		
	{	Science.	{	Botany.
				Zoology.
				Physiology.
				Physics.
				Chemistry.
				Mineralogy.
{	Drawing.	{		
{	Music.	{	Singing.	
			Piano.	
			Organ.	
{	Gymnastics.	{	Violin.	
{	French.	{		

CHAPTER XXI.

TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

THERE are in Prussia 122 teachers' seminaries, 111 for men exclusively, 9 for women, 1 with course for women separate from the course for men, and 1 for governesses. Each of the 36 royal governments (including the city of Berlin) must have at least one seminary, and as many more as may be needed. The faculty of a teachers' seminary **Faculty of a seminary.** consist of a director, a head-teacher or sort of vice-principal, four regular teachers, one of whom is the practice teacher, and one assistant (*Hülfslehrer*). All teaching not done by the above is done by the students in the practice school.

The number of students admitted depends upon the requirements of the district, but the number for each class must not exceed 30, or, in case of a scarcity of teachers, 36. As there are three classes the total number of students in a school therefore is 90-100. Instead of allowing the number to go beyond this, the government prefers to build new seminaries whenever there is a demand for them. As teachers' positions are permanent, and as statistics and experience show the average number of vacancies caused by death, retirement upon pension, illness, and other causes, pretty accurate estimates can be made as to the number of teachers that will be needed. So only as many as will probably be needed, allowance being made for the falling off during the course, are admitted to the seminary. Thus the state is at the expense of preparing only as many teachers as may be needed, and the student who has satis-

factorily completed the course is reasonably sure of a position.

Candidates for admission must have completed their seventeenth year and not be more than twenty-four years of age, must be in good health, of good moral character, and must also pass an oral and written examination **Conditions of admission.** for entrance. A careful examination is made by a physician, and those who are not likely to endure the three years of study and be able to devote many years to the service of the state in teaching are rejected. The government must necessarily be careful in this particular for two reasons:

1. It cannot afford to educate a man who will not be able to render proper return in service, as a large part of the expense falls upon the state, and

2. As the state pays a pension to teachers who are obliged to retire after 10 years' service, care must be taken that only healthy candidates are admitted to the service.

The candidates are examined by the faculty of the school under the direction of a commission appointed by the provincial school board. The subjects examined in are religion, German, arithmetic, music, science, and **Subjects of examination.** history. A short essay on some familiar topic is required. In science a knowledge of geology, zoology, botany, physics, and elementary chemistry is expected, and some familiarity with experiments. Also ability to play easy pieces of music on the piano, organ, and violin. This last requirement is not held to very strictly in all cases, though it is desired. It is not necessary that a pupil should have received his preparation in the preparatory schools already described. If he has had that training, he enters the seminary more easily, as the preparatory school has shaped its course to that end, having been under the oversight of the director of the seminary; but no mat-

ter where he has been trained, if there is an opening, and if he can meet the requirements, he is admitted.

The teachers' seminaries are all confessional in character, **Confessional** teachers for evangelical schools being trained in **in character.** evangelical seminaries, and teachers for Catholic schools in Catholic seminaries. All alike, however, are supported by the state, and are under the same general regulations as to teachers, students, course of study, and so forth.

The directors (principals) are appointed directly by the king;* they are mostly university men and theologians. A strong religious sentiment pervades the life of the seminary, and no young man can come under its influence for **Religious in-** three years without being deeply impressed; **fluences of** therefore the young teachers go forth to their **the seminary.** important duty prepared to exert an influence for piety and good morals in the communities where their lot is cast.

The other teachers of the seminary are appointed by the minister of education, and they must have proved their eminent pedagogical fitness to be teachers of teachers before they can be chosen. The salaries of the instructors are as follows:

Directors.....	4000-5400 Marks.
Head-teachers.....	3000-4000 "
Ordinary "	1800-3200 "
Assistant "	1200-1800 "

Besides their salary they have dwelling-rooms, fuel, and light free of cost.

In about one third of the Prussian seminaries the students are roomed and boarded in the school building; in the others they board in families, under control of the faculty. Tuition is free, and each student is allowed from 90-150 marks a year towards his expenses.

* In his relations to the Kingdom of Prussia Wilhelm II. is king, hence the use of that title here.

In connection with the seminary there is always a practice-school. Prof. Stoy used to say: "A pedagogical seminary without a practice-school is a nonentity, **Always has a chimera.**" The students of the third class * **a practice-school.** are simply learners, having lessons to prepare and recite the same as in other schools. Those of the second class begin to take part in the control of children at work and at play, and finally they are required to follow a systematic plan of visiting classes and observation of methods of instruction. They may also be given a small amount of teaching just before the close of the year to prepare them for the work of their last year. Those of the first class must teach a part of the year. They must teach classes of different ages in different subjects, under the inspection and criticism of the seminary faculty, especially the practice-teacher. Their colleagues are present as ob- **Weekly** servers. Once a week a conference is held at **conference.** which the whole class and members of the faculty are present. The work is discussed, criticisms offered and suggestions made. Sometimes a class of children is brought in and a lesson given by one of the students, which is afterward discussed. When a student turns over a class to a successor, he must examine it in the presence of the faculty and his colleagues in order to show the work accomplished and the condition of the class, so that his successor will know where to begin. Each student is required to keep all records and perform every duty that will devolve upon him when he is actually in charge of a school.

The seminary-faculty ever have in mind in their training the necessary qualifications of a successful teacher, and seek to develop them in theory and practice in their pupils.

* The beginners are the third class, the second year the second class, and the third or graduating year the first class. We shall use the German nomenclature in alluding to these classes hereafter,

These qualifications may be stated as follows:

1. Knowledge, not so much in breadth as fundamental, sure, and connected.

Qualifications of a successful teacher. 2. Skill in teaching, which usually develops by practice.

3. Natural inclination for the work and duties of teacher.

4. Power of instructing, which carries with it the gift of observing, acquaintance with the human heart and mental activities, and ability to understand the child-nature. The teacher must also have an open nature, a quiet disposition, and stability of character. These gifts or powers of instructing are established by natural bent and cultivated by experience and reflection. Under these elevating influences and with these high motives ever held before him, the young student-teacher spends his three years in the seminary preparatory to a life-work devoted unselfishly to the service of his state and his fellow-beings.

CHAPTER XXII.

COURSE OF STUDY IN TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

BEFORE entering upon a study of the course itself, it may be well first to see what the general purpose of each year is. The object in the lowest class (third) is to teach the students to systematize and extend their knowledge, to be able to reproduce accurately. They have nothing to do with the practice-school, but are taught by the faculty, whose lessons are intended to be good models of teaching. The work is simply academic. In the middle class (second) the knowledge is extended, and they are introduced gradually to the work of teaching by undertaking some control of the children and by visiting class-work as observers.

**Purpose of
work in
each class.**

In the upper class (first) the seminary studies are completed and work marked out for their further study after they leave the seminary and begin teaching. They also have not less than six nor more than ten hours of teaching throughout the year in the practice-school. The work done by them in teaching must be carefully entered from time to time in a book for that purpose.

The two lower classes have 24 hours a week of lessons, the upper class 14 hours, 10 hours being allowed for their work in teaching. One foreign language is required, usually French. English and Latin are also taught as optional studies for those who are able to take them. Each lesson by a member of the seminary faculty is supposed to be a model of didactic procedure, to serve as an example for the future practice of the student when he becomes a teacher. Each seminary is provided with a good library, various cab-

inets, laboratories, and necessary apparatus for instruction. All lessons are omitted one school-day each month in order to give the students opportunity for continuous study without any interruption. These days cannot be used for any other purpose, but must be employed faithfully in study.

With this general introduction, we are ready to proceed with the discussion of the individual subjects of the course of study.

PEDAGOGICS.

(3D YEAR—2 HOURS.*)

The most important events in the history of education; discussion of celebrated teachers; the chief periods of progress in the history of the common schools; introduction to the literature of pedagogics, especially since the Reformation; these to be treated in a systematic manner, so that the pupils will be able to reproduce in the form of connected statements.

(2D YEAR—3 HOURS.)

General principles of education and instruction, education by means of or through instruction, with application of the most important principles of logic and psychology.

(1ST YEAR—3 HOURS.)

Methods; the office of school-teacher, school authority; the peculiar school laws and regulations of the district in which the seminary is situated, as well as matters of discipline and other questions that are likely to be of use to the young teacher. Two hours are devoted to the above, while the third is taken by the practice-teacher for the discussion of didactic questions and the elucidation of pedagogical truths from their work in the seminary.

RELIGION †

(3D YEAR—4 HOURS.)

Connected Old Testament history with special reference to the moral and religious context; the Psalms and selec-

* 2 hours a week.

† It may be thought that as religion has no part in the American school course, it will be of no practical value to give the course in

tions from other poetic books; the historical development of hymns, particularly those specified in the course to be taught in the schools.

(2D YEAR—4 HOURS.)

Connected New Testament history and the Epistles; explanations of church days and ordinances; religious doctrines according to the particular confession (protestant or Catholic) based upon the catechism. In the last half of the second semester, at least an hour a week of this time is given to observation of class work in religion in the practice-school.

(1ST YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Acts of the Apostles, Pauline letters, selections from the books of Job and Isaiah; the most important events of church history; methods of religious instruction; thorough knowledge of the religious text-books in use in the district, such as the catechism, hymn-book, etc., in order to be able to explain their contents to the children.

GERMAN.

(3D YEAR—5 HOURS.)

a. Grammar.—The simple, compound, and complex sentence; parts of speech, declension, conjugation, comparison, etc; the rules of orthography and punctuation.

b. Rhetoric.—Practice in oral and written expression; discussion of different kinds of poetry, legends, proverbs, fables, parables, allegory, style, etc.

(2D YEAR—5 HOURS.)

a. Grammar.—The same as the 3d year, only extended, completing the subject.

b. Rhetoric.—Completion also of this subject.

In addition the method of teaching reading and language, illustrated by model lessons, with pupils.

religion here. But one cannot obtain a correct picture of the German schools if religion is omitted in this discussion, as it has such an important place in the course. Its discussion may be of value to us also.

(1ST YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Review of the work of the two preceding classes; method of teaching the mother-tongue practically developed by lessons with children, the following ends to be had in view:

a. Great weight to be laid upon the acquisition of correct and fluent speech, which is not to be reached simply by special exercises for that purpose, but must be had in mind in every lesson of every subject taught, so that the child acquires the habit of always using correct language.

b. In written exercises correct spelling, accurateness in expression, proper arrangement of material to be always insisted upon. The end to be sought in the student is the ability to use the knowledge which he possesses readily and fluently in all subjects which he has to teach.

c. Readings from the masterpieces of prose and poetry and German classics, with explanations of the meanings; finally the reading-book of the province is carefully gone through, its literature studied, and the young teacher prepared to properly instruct in reading.

HISTORY.**(3D YEAR—2 HOURS.)**

History of Greece, heroic age, Persian wars, till Alexander the Great; history of Rome during the empire and the republic, fall of the republic, the Cæsars until the end of the first century.

. (2D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

The land and folk of the early Germans, wars with Rome, migration of the races, the Carlovingians, extension of Christianity, Charlemagne, history of German royal houses, crusades, modern history coming down to the Reformation.

(1ST YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Brandenburg, Prussian history till the present time, with contemporary history of other nations.

The method of instruction from the third to the first class is intended to be a model of pedagogical procedure. It seeks to develop the power of connected description on the part of the students, which they are required to apply in the practice-school in their last year.

ARITHMETIC.

(3D YEAR—3 HOURS.)

The fundamental rules of arithmetic and algebra,* decimals, fractions, rule of three, various branches of percentage, square and cube root.

(2D YEAR—3 HOURS.)

Proportion, elementary algebra to quadratic equations, review of the work actually taught in the common school with view to illustrate the methods of instruction, use of the arithmetical apparatus employed in the schools.

(1ST YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Quadratic equations and, if possible, logarithms. The purpose during this last year is to secure independence in the solution of problems, and to give a clear insight into the methods of instruction.

GEOMETRY.

(3D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Plain geometry, with exercises in construction.

(2D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Plain geometry, completed, and solid geometry.

(1ST YEAR.)

Review of the first two years' work in connection with the work in arithmetic. Great attention is paid throughout the whole three years to geometrical constructions and to the drawing of original figures. The instruction is based upon observation, use being made of geometrical forms and of drawings.

SCIENCE.

(3D YEAR—4 HOURS)

a. Botany.—Study of selected, native plants, which belong to families most generally found in the locality, knowledge of the Linné system and of the most important plants of botanical morphology. Two hours a week are given to zoology in the winter.

* Simple algebraic operations are carried on with the same operations in arithmetic. The arithmetical operations are made clearer thereby, and but little more time is required.

b. Physics.—Magnetic, electrical, and mechanical manifestations.

c. Chemistry.—The simple radicals and their combinations. Especial attention given to the mineral bases.

(2D YEAR—4 HOURS.)

a. Botany.—Continued and completed. In the winter zoology again, also completed. Physiology is also given.

b. Physics.—Light, heat, and sound.

c. Chemistry.—In addition to the completion of the work begun the previous year, organic chemistry. The method of instruction is always given prominence, ample illustrations and experiments being made use of.

(1ST YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Review of the work of the previous years, with special reference to methods of instruction. Geology is added.

Throughout all the science work experiments, especially in physics and chemistry, and in other subjects, objects or pictures of objects freely used to illustrate. Pure memorizing is forbidden. Students must be able to manipulate the apparatus and perform experiments themselves. In all cases illustration must be freely made use of wherever possible.

GEOGRAPHY.

(3D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

The most important things in connection with local and general geography, general survey of the earth's surface, the grand divisions of the earth with the exception of Europe, use of maps.

(2D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Europe, Germany, mathematical geography, introduction to the method of teaching geography by model lessons as a preparation for the work of the final year.

(1ST YEAR—1 HOUR.)

Method of teaching carefully carried out; use of maps, atlases, globes, tellurium, and other apparatus. Each student is to possess a large atlas, which he must freely use during his course and keep for personal use in the school-room.

DRAWING.**(3D YEAR—2 HOURS.)**

Free-hand drawing; drawing and dividing of lines and angles; drawing of geometrical plain figures; compound and symmetrical figures; drawing of angular and curved figures; ornamentation from objects and pictures; use of ruler, compass, and other instruments; drawing on the blackboard.

(2D YEAR—2 HOURS.)

Elements of perspective; free-hand drawing from models and objects; charcoal and India-ink work according to the special gifts of the student; blackboard drawing.

(1ST YEAR—1 HOUR.)

Practice on the blackboard and drawing from objects, especially such as will be of use in illustrating school-work; methods of drawing discussed and the class taught not only the practical but also the theoretical value of drawing in education.

Each member of the class is able at the end of his seminary course to draw rapidly on paper or on the blackboard any object or picture necessary in his future work as teacher, and also to give theoretical and practical instruction in drawing to his pupils.

WRITING.**(3D YEAR—2 HOURS, AND 2D YEAR—1 HOUR.)**

The purpose of this work is as follows:

1. Each student must acquire a good handwriting, and in all written work show a clean, plain, rapid style.
2. He must be able to write copies in writing-books and also on the blackboard neatly and accurately.
3. He must be able to teach the subject systematically and methodically.

GYMNASTICS.

The third- and second-year students have two hours a week, and the first year one hour in which they have all of the gymnastic exercises of the common school, besides such other exercises as they may desire to take for their

own health and amusement. Lessons on the human body are given, and the purpose of the various gymnastic exercises for its development explained. There are also lectures on measures to be taken in cases of accidents, on the historical development and purpose of gymnastics, manner of establishing a gymnasium in country schools, and how to make apparatus, and other questions of like nature. Every member of the graduating class must conduct a class in gymnastics a number of times until proper skill is shown. As gymnastics are required in all schools the same as other subjects, every teacher must be prepared to teach them.

MUSIC.

Each student is given a technical training on the piano, organ and violin, and in harmony and singing. This extends throughout the full three years, and as we have seen, presupposes some previous preparation. Thus all of the common school teachers of Prussia receive good, fundamental training in music. The theory and history of music and the works of masters are also discussed. The object is to fit every teacher to instruct his classes in elementary music, which also is a required subject of study. When there is no piano or organ, as is the case in most schoolrooms, the violin serves for the accompaniment. The teacher, generally, in villages is the church organist and leader of the singing. There are over 1500 such positions in Prussia.

The requirement of Luther, nearly four hundred years ago, that every teacher should be required to be able to sing, is more than literally fulfilled in the German schools of to-day.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE.

This work is given in three courses of 3, 3 and 2 hours a week, students being admitted to the course for which they are prepared, without reference to the class to which they belong. The languages are Latin, French and English.

Upon completion of the above course of study there are three things required of each candidate for graduation.

1. A written examination, as follows:

- a. An essay on some pedagogical theme.
- b. An exercise describing a plan of teaching religion.
- c. Working three problems in arithmetic and geometry.
- d. Discussion of a topic in history, natural science, and geography.
- e. Playing of a piece on the organ.
- f. Translation of an exercise from and into a foreign tongue.

2. Oral examination in any subject of the course that may be asked for by the royal commission in whose presence it is held.

3. Practical exhibition of his ability to teach by instructing a class before the royal commission.

If successful the candidate is placed on the teachers' list ready to enter service. He will be appointed to a place in the district if there are vacancies and must take whatever is given him, or pay back the expense of his education. He is not yet admitted to the full grade of teacher, but must pass a second examination after two and before the end of five years from the time of his graduation. This second test is largely of a pedagogical character, intended to bring out his knowledge of methods and to discover the progress he has made while engaged in teaching. If the probation has proved satisfactory, if ability to teach and properly conduct the office of teacher has been shown, and if the second examination is also satisfactory, the young man is admitted to the full office of teacher and takes the oath of office.

Nor does the interest of the *alma mater* cease when the young graduates leave the seminary; the principal visits them in their school, watches the work and renders them valuable advice. These visits are also of great value to

the principal, as he can thus discover the weaknesses in his own work when put to a practical test, and be able to correct the mistakes with those whom he shall send out in the future. This connection of the seminary with the schools, and continued interest of the school in her graduates, is of utmost importance to all concerned, and especially to the young teacher.

**Interest of
Alma mater
in her
students.**

The seminaries for women have practically the same course of study, and the same conditions must be met.

Besides the regular course for teachers, there is also a six-weeks' summer course for theological students, which all must take before they enter upon a pastorate. They attend classes and observe work, hear lectures and try to absorb something of the spirit of school-life. This is required because a large number of the pastors are also local

**Course for
theological
students.**

school-inspectors. Obviously a six-weeks' course cannot do much to prepare for this important office, and indeed this course is accepted by many as a sort of holiday at the close of a long course of study in the gymnasium and university before entering upon the duties of pastor. It must be mentioned also that many of these young theologians hear lectures on pedagogics in the university besides their theological work, in order to conscientiously prepare themselves for such school duties as may devolve upon them. The teachers, however, generally desire that this office shall be taken from the clergy and given to pedagogically trained men.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

THERE are three classes of teachers in the German common school system, those provisionally appointed, those who have permanent positions, and those who have intermittent work. The provisional teachers are those who have completed the seminary course and taken what is known as the first examination. This examination is held under the following conditions:

1. An examination is held in all teachers' ^{The first} seminaries of the kingdom at the close of the ^{examination.} school year.

2. It covers all subjects of the course, is carried out by the seminary faculty, and in the presence of a commission from the provincial school board, and of the school-inspectors and superintendents of the district. Representatives of the Church may also be present, but no other persons.

3. Tests of ability to teach classes of children are required.

4. Candidates that pass a satisfactory examination receive a testimonial signed by the faculty and the royal commission.

5. This testimonial shows the work of the student in each subject, together with his tact and skill in teaching, his moral character, his fitness to teach, these being indicated by "excellent," "good," "satisfactory."

6. This testimonial is a certificate to teach for three years, after which there is a second and final examination necessary, before which the teacher can be appointed only

provisionally. If, however, a student receives the mark "excellent," does superior work in teaching, and secures a permanent place, he may be excused from the second examination. This examination may be made after two years' experience, and must be made before the end of five years.

7. While the first examination has more to do with knowledge of subjects, the second has especially to do with pedagogical questions, and practical school matters.

8. Persons not trained in a teachers' seminary may take this final examination at the same time and under the same conditions as those above specified, and if successful, they also are allowed to teach.

9. Even in cases of teachers who have passed their final examination and have fixed positions, it is the duty of their seminary to continue an oversight of their work. Should there be lack of progress or negligence on their part, they can be required to take additional work at the seminary. Thus the teachers' seminary exerts an influence which reaches throughout its district and serves in a sense as an impelling, inspiring, and disciplinary force.

10. The director of the seminary must visit the schools from time to time where its graduates are teaching, in order to judge of their work, advise and assist them, and at the same time gather points for his own work. Thus the seminary keeps in touch with the schools, studies their wants, and the teachers are benefited by wise and sympathetic counsel and oversight.

Teachers usually take the second examination as soon as possible after the required two years in order to secure a permanent place, and in order to acquire the right to increase of salary and to be entitled to pension. Such right is secure only after the teacher's permanency has been established.

The Second Examination.

The details of the second examination are as follows:

1. The candidate must hand in a thesis on some pedagogical topic selected from several subjects presented some time beforehand by the commission. **The permanent teacher.**

2. He must teach a class of children in the presence of the commission, having presented a brief of his plan beforehand.

3. In case the first two conditions are satisfactorily met, he is further submitted to an oral examination in the history and doctrines of education, and in school practice. In the history of education, the examination covers the whole subject in general and that of Prussia in particular. Knowledge of the chief pedagogical works and the leading educators is expected, especially those that have exercised the greatest influence upon the Prussian schools. The candidate may select a special field in which he has informed himself, concerning which his examiners question him more closely and expect a thorough acquaintance. He is also examined as to the psychological foundations of education, and further work in this line is indicated for him.

In school practice the object is to see how far experience has already extended, what his ability is to properly question, how well principles and methods are applied.

Thus by means of these two examinations, occurring at the close of the school course and after sufficient school-room experience, covering the knowledge of subjects and the didactics of teaching, being most comprehensive and thorough, the authorities establish the fitness or unfitness of candidates for the important office of teaching. It is a severe crucible to pass through, but when once successfully passed, the teacher enters upon a life-position, and has no further examinations to pass unless he chooses to

become a candidate for a higher office. The state takes every precaution to prevent unworthy and unfitted persons from entering upon this work. This admirable plan not only secures well-trained and practical teachers, but the very small number discharged for incompetency or immoral life proves that men of ability and character are almost universally chosen, and that they never forget the importance of their calling.

The final examination being passed, the teacher is installed with proper ceremony, taking the following oath of office:

I, _____, swear in the presence of the Almighty and Allwise God, that I will be submissive, faithful, and obedient to my most gracious master, His Majesty the King of Prussia, and that I will fulfil the duties of my office to the best of my knowledge and ability, so help me God.

(Signed)

The teacher may resign a position upon due notice to go to some other one, but can be dismissed only for immorality or incapacity. It is seldom, however, that a teacher changes from one position to another, and exceedingly rare that one is dismissed. Having required severe tests before admitting fully to the teacher's office, the state protects those who are successful by giving them life-positions. Because of the severe ordeal to be passed through good men only can succeed, and because of the assured stability such men are willing to enter upon this life. This explains why Germany has such splendid teachers, and therefore such splendid schools.

The third class of teachers, the intermittent, as their name indicates, are those who substitute, do irregular work, teaching part of the time, perhaps, in public schools and part of the time in private schools, or teaching some

specialty like gymnastics, sewing, etc. Many of these afterward become regular teachers, doing the intermittent work while waiting for a position. These teachers have no claim upon the pensions.

Examination for Teachers of Higher Schools.

For those who wish to teach in the upper classes of the "Mittel" schools* there is a further examination necessary. The same is also true of the girls' high schools. Only those who have passed the second examination just described and have a record for excellent teaching can be admitted to the examination for teachers of the higher schools. A special commission, made up of a member of the provincial school board, two school-superintendents, a principal and a teacher from a normal school, and a teacher from a *Gymnasium* or a *Real* school, thus representing various school interests, is appointed to conduct these examinations.

This examination, like the former, is both theoretical and practical, the theoretical part being written and oral, and the practical part the conducting of a lesson with pupils. It is similar to the preceding one, only more is expected. There must also be a knowledge of at least two foreign languages, and an especial acquaintance with the particular branch that the candidate wishes to teach. Careful examination as to knowledge of methods of instruction in the various branches is required, and particularly in the chosen field of the candidate.

* "Mittel" schools are of a higher grade than the corresponding common schools. They are intended for the middle class of people who cannot send their children to the gymnasium and to the university, and yet who desire some exclusiveness and can afford to pay for it. These schools require better-trained teachers and have a somewhat more extended course. Sometimes the first three years of the "Mittel" school prepare for admission to the gymnasium. (See chapter on "Mittel" schools, p. 206.)

Examination of Principals.

Those who wish to secure positions as Rektor (principal) must in addition to the foregoing pass a still further examination before the commission last mentioned. A thesis on some pedagogical subject that the commission has given the candidate must be handed in. He is especially examined in methods, school law, school practice and in the wider territory of pedagogy with which a principal should be familiar.

Separate examinations are given to women, covering, however, nearly the same ground, particular reference being had to the kind of work that women are allowed to do, **Examination** that is, instructors in girls' schools and in the **of women.** lower classes of boys' schools. The course of study in seminaries for women is practically the same as that for men.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE TEACHERS.

IN 1893 the total number of graduates from the 111 seminaries for men was 3563, and the total number of students was 10,836. In the 11 seminaries for women there were 703 students with 232 graduates, making a total in the 122 teachers' seminaries of Prussia of 11,539 students and 3795 graduates. The increase in the number of graduates from the normal schools since 1870 is $116\frac{4}{10}$ per cent, while the population has increased only $21\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. In 1870 there was one student in the teachers' seminaries to 4930 inhabitants, while in 1892 the relations were 1 to 2764. This remarkable increase has enabled the government to displace untrained teachers and to fill vacant positions with graduates from the normal schools. At the same time the number of pupils to a teacher has been diminished. Every teacher in the kingdom must have been through the seminary as the minimum of requirement, or have had at least an equal training somewhere else. Thus the teachers are all of a high educational and pedagogical standard, a fact that most naturally has its effect upon the schools.

High standard of teachers.

The teachers come from all ranks of life, but the largest proportion comes from the farm. In 1893 nearly one third of all the teachers, or 21,787, were of this class. This fact is of great importance, as such teachers are able to enter into the life of the country people with whom they live, and therefore command the respect and love of their patrons to a wonderful degree. Another fact is of deep

interest. Not less than 13,208 teachers, or about one fifth of the total number, are sons of teachers. This shows that teachers love their office even though it often affords them scanty support; and because they love it, they gladly see their children dedicate themselves to it. The principal of one of the common schools in Berlin told us that his grandfather and father before him were teachers, and that

it was a great grief to him that his only son is not a teacher, preferring to enter the regular army as an officer, though he had shown special aptness to teach. These boys coming from the

home of teachers enter upon this work under especially favorable prospects, and one has a right to expect them to make good teachers, and the facts prove the expectation warranted. Aside from whatever ability they may have inherited, they have been born and brought up in the atmosphere of a teacher's home. Whether it be the teacher in the remote little village, where day after day, and year after year, the hundred children gather around him to be led, instructed, developed, and started on life's pathway, and where perhaps he must eke out his existence on \$150 a year; or whether it be the more favored teacher in the large city, our experience is that the German school-master loves the work to which he has devoted his life. And that love makes him as truly a consecrated and self-sacrificing man as if he had devoted himself to the sacred calling. A nobler class of men does not exist on God's footstool than the German school-teachers. So it is no wonder that boys grown up in such an atmosphere and under such an influence should early turn their thoughts to teaching, and if they do so, they bring a tremendous advantage with them.

With female teachers the statistics are quite different. Only about 15 per cent of the 8494 female teachers in 1891 came from farmers' homes, while about one third of

the total number are daughters of government officials, pastors, judges, physicians, authors, teachers, **Women** and army officers combined. The reason for so **teachers.** many women from these classes turning their attention to teaching is found in the fact that their prospects for suitable marriage are not good, especially as men living upon a salary are unable to give a dowry with their daughters, a most important consideration in German marriage contracts. Teaching affords a means of respectable self-support, and these girls devote their lives to it with great devotion, conscientiousness and efficiency. Aside from teaching there are but few callings open for women of this class. Of the total number of common school teachers, 71,731, only 241 have not passed the required examinations, that is, had the training of a teachers' seminary or its equivalent. These latter are mostly old teachers who had already been definitely appointed before the present requirements were in force, and because of their efficiency are still **Long service** retained in service. It is interesting to note that **of teachers.** 2521 teachers have been in service between 40-50 years, and 251 over 50 years. The average of teachers' service throughout Prussia is about 25 years. Only about 12 per cent of the teachers are women, and it is only in recent years that they have received recognition to teach on practically the same basis as men, although the seminaries for their training are as thorough as those for men.* Since 1874 they may teach in the girls' schools and the lower class of boys' schools, having the same right to increase of salary with years of service, pension, etc. The relative number of the two sexes in Berlin is about as follows: in girls' schools 60 per cent women and 40 per cent

* The first seminary for training women for the calling of teaching was established at Münster in 1830, before America had a normal school. The first Prussian seminary for men was established at Stettin in 1785, nearly a hundred years before that time.

men, and in boys' schools 40 per cent women and 60 per cent men. In many boys' schools, however, no women are employed, so that the percentage of women teachers in Berlin falls much lower than the above figures would seem to indicate. The situation is still less favorable for women throughout the kingdom as a whole than it is in Berlin.

Income of women teachers. Some cities employ women only for gymnastics and sewing in girls' schools, while in country places where there is only one teacher a man is always chosen. In schools where women are employed the disposition of their work is left largely to the principal; but mathematics, science, and religion are usually assigned to men, and geography, history, language, etc., to women.

The increase of women in the field of teaching has been remarkable. In 1857 the total number in Prussia was 1523; in 1886 it was 6848; in 1891, 8494, of whom 5308 were in cities and 3186 in the country. From 1886 to 1891, a period of 5 years, the increase was 24 per cent. In the small towns the schools that employ women are almost entirely Catholic, the Protestant communities, aside from Berlin, being slow to employ them except for needlework and gymnastics for girls.

The admission of women to this field has always been regarded by the men with jealousy, as if it were trespassing upon their rights. The traditions, as well as the practice of centuries have established this sentiment; but a change has been brought about, not so much because the labor of women is cheaper, as we shall see elsewhere that the difference in pay is not so great, but because women have shown themselves naturally and admirably fitted for this calling. Undoubtedly the smaller cities will follow the example of Berlin more and more, so that there is likely to be a still greater increase in the number of women employed in the schools. It is not to be expected, however, that the schools that employ but one teacher will ever be

committed to the care of women, so that the majority of teachers will always be men.

The instructions which the state gives her teachers contain so much of pedagogical value, and so fully illustrate what is expected of the teachers, that we give them in full, as follows:

1. Every teacher should in the school and out of it, by word and example, always prove himself a living member and true servant of the Church.

2. The teacher must not take part in any political effort which seeks to overthrow the government which he has sworn to serve.

3. He should be an example of piety and good morals, and should avoid giving offense to parents or children of his community.

4. In case of drunkenness, making debts, gambling, speculation, indiscretions in the discharge of his duties, he is liable to expulsion from office without pension.

5. He cannot engage in any other business, as this would withdraw his interest from his school, weaken his influence in the community, and cause him to lose the respect of parents and children.*

6. Before taking any additional office, he must have the consent of his royal school board.

7. He must follow the school programme which has been approved by the inspector, and must also make the daily entries in the school journal required by law.

8. In the arrangement of his school work he must consult the school-inspector, who must ratify the plans. He must do his utmost to assist his pupils in getting the necessary school materials and school-books. The introduction of new books requires the consent of the school authorities.

* This is chiefly to prevent him from engaging in trade outside of his school-hours, as it would place him in a very different attitude to his people. He is to be esteemed much as the pastor is.

9. As soon as the children are old enough, the teacher must see that they have work to do at home, but are not overburdened. Before assigning home-work he must go over it with the children.

10. Every lesson must begin and close punctually; he must dress neatly, and see to it that the schoolroom is in proper order.

11. Vacations are fixed by the local school board, but must conform to the general requirements as to number of weeks of actual school-work.

12. Punishment may be administered by the teacher the same as by parents; it must never be abused, and should be seldom resorted to. If punishments do not have the desired effect the teacher must report the case to the school board.

13. The teacher's duty of discipline does not cease with the schoolhours or school-grounds. He must see to it that his pupils are respectful to their seniors, and that they engage in no misdemeanors on the street.*

14. He should encourage and help pupils who have finished school to go on with their studies, and should also continue his own studies. Attendance upon teachers' meetings is encouraged.

15. In many places, especially in the country, the teacher is a sort of pastor's assistant. He must conduct the service in the absence of the pastor, reading a sermon. At all of the services he is organist and leader of the singing. He also assists the pastor at weddings, baptisms, funerals, etc., acting as a kind of church-warden.

* It often occurs that the teacher calls children to account in school for offenses of a public character that he has learned about. The idea of discipline is that at all times he may call his pupils to account.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS.

THE question of the appointment of teachers is hard to make clear, owing to the peculiar historical development of the school system, and owing to the lack of a uniform practice. The first schools were organized and supported by the Church, by individual communities, or by some wealthy landowner or baron called patron. These schools were entirely separate and independent; therefore the parties that established and supported them selected the teacher naturally without question. But the state came to recognize the necessity of schools and began to assist in their support. Finally the state adopted compulsory education and declared schools to be necessary for the upholding and development of society, and therefore state institutions. So all institutions of learning, whether public or private, whether common school or university, were declared to be under the protection and control of the state.

Lack of uniformity in appointing teachers.

At the same time the state did not intend to hinder the progress of education by destroying local interest and influence, nor by asserting absolute authority over the schools. Thus the family right to a voice in the education of their own children, and the local right to a voice in the direction of the school, rights which have been jealousy guarded by the people of Prussia until the present time, are recognized by the state. The right, therefore, to appoint the teacher rested, and still rests, in part, with those that established the school.

Local rights respected.

The manner of choosing the teacher, therefore, is varied in different parts of Prussia, there being no general law on the subject. In some cases it is the patron, in others the church society, the landed property owners, the community at large, and in still others it is the state itself. In general the state assumes authority in the appointment of teachers in proportion to its share in their support. In cases where the school is wholly supported by private means, the state simply confirms the teacher. The state either names several candidates from which the local authorities make a choice, or the representatives of the community name the candidates and the state chooses, the two bodies acting together. Thus the local authorities are practically free in their choice, the state seldom failing to confirm appointments made by them, and the state on the other hand ever exercising a healthy restraint to prevent

Danger of absolutism in school management. the choice of improper candidates. Many teachers see a strong tendency toward absolutism in school management, the parents becoming more and more indifferent as to their

local rights, and the state gradually trespassing more and more upon this field. Undoubtedly the authority of the state holds the teacher, the school, and the community to higher ideals, and prevents ignorance and parsimony from weakening the full efficiency of the school. As the state specifies the minimum course of study, fixes the standard of pedagogical fitness of teachers, has its own inspectors to

The parents the natural guardians of the school. see that all requirements are met, its interests will not suffer if it does not interfere in the local management of each individual school. This should be left to the parents, who after all have the closest and most natural interest in the education of their own children.

Finally, when a teacher becomes a candidate for a position, he must teach a class of pupils in the presence of the local

school authorities, and must satisfy them of his fitness to conduct their school or to fill the position. Without such a test no teacher is ever appointed. Having **Test lesson** satisfied the committee, the oath of office is ad- **required.** ministered, and with formal ceremony the teacher is permanently installed.

The following points in the manner of choosing teachers may be mentioned as commendatory:

1. The influence of the state secures a high standard of educational requirement for all teachers.

2. It prevents the exercise of parsimony in a community able to support a teacher, by determining the grade of teacher which they may employ.

3. It selects trained teachers as school-inspectors, who, being acquainted with the wants of a school, are wise counsellors in the selection of a proper teacher.

4. It unites with the community in the support of the school, and therefore in the choice of its teacher.

5. It limits the number of candidates (generally three), so that the appointing board are not confused by a great number of candidates, fitted and unfitted.

6. When a choice is made the appointment is permanent, provided the period of probation has been served and the required second examination passed.

CHAPTER XXVI.

SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

THE salaries of teachers differ greatly according to locality, cost of living, and time of service. The law requires that "the salary shall be sufficient to meet the necessities of life according to the conditions in each community." Although this is the statute, it must be confessed that in many cases the facts come short of its realization, as statistics which we shall give below will show. The

**Minister
Bosse a friend
of the
schools.**

Minister of Education, Dr. Bosse, is a warm friend of the common schools, and he has sought by all means at his command to improve the condition of the teachers. He prepared a bill in 1894 which sought to "at least secure for the teachers the simple necessities of life," but was obliged to withhold it, after finding that it had not the slightest chance of success. Since that time the question has constantly been agitated, but as yet without result. The teachers of Prussia in

**Poor pay of
teachers.**

convention asked for a minimum salary of 1200 marks (\$300), the minimum salary of civil officers of corresponding rank in the Prussian service; but the minister, knowing the futility of asking for that amount, proposed to ask for a minimum of 900 marks, which, as we have seen, he was obliged to abandon also. As there are more than 11,000 teachers in Prussia whose salary is from 540 to 750 marks (\$135 to \$187.50) a year, and more than 23,000, or about one third of the whole body of teachers, receiving less than 900 marks, even this law would have been a great blessing. Although teachers are

officers of the state, it is a notorious fact that their salaries are less than those of like training and rank in other departments of state service. The carrying out of the above-mentioned proposed law would require about 11,000,000 marks a year.

We shall give a series of original tables intended to illustrate the salary question in various aspects. They are based on statistics to 1891, since when there have been no general statistics collected. No especial changes have taken place since that time except in Berlin and some other large cities. In order that a false impression may not be given, it should be stated that in all schools of one teacher and for principals of schools having several teachers, dwelling and fire free of cost are furnished for the teacher and his family. In most country places a garden is also furnished. As these include the most of those receiving the small salaries above indicated, their situation, though bad enough, is not as bad as would seem at first glance.

TABLE OF TEACHERS' SALARIES IN PRUSSIA.

Amounts, marks.	No. of City Teachers.	No. of Country Teachers.	Total.
Less than 450 }	40	87	127
451-600	855	2809	2664
601-750	1544	6127	7671
751-900	2818	8692	11010
901-1050	2806	6952	9258
1051-1200	2220	5041	7261
1201-1350	2070	5011	7081
1351-1500	1783	3339	5122
1501-1800	3544	3028	6572
1801-2100	2261	1092	3353
2101-2400	1460	388	1848
2401-2700	632	107	739
2701-3000	224	40	264
Over 3000	252	15	267
Total	21009	42228	63237

This gives an average of 1452 marks for cities and 1080 marks for the country, and a general average of 1203 marks.

The above statistics are for male teachers. The averages for female teachers are as follows: In cities, 1003 marks; in the country, 862 marks; general average 950 marks.

The following table will show the salaries of teachers in cities of various sizes selected from various parts of the kingdom. The star indicates rent free or an allowance for the same, and sometimes light and heat included.

Cities.	Population.	Salaries of Male Teachers.	Salaries of Female Teachers.	Salaries of Rektors.
Berlin.....	1,750,000	1200-3800	1200-2200	3400-4200*
Breslau.....	335,000	1600-3000	1300-2100	3400-3900
Cassel.....	72,000	900-3200	900-1950	3600-4500*
Cologne.....	285,000	1050-2800*	900-1780*	2300-3200*
Düsseldorf....	150,000	1000-2500*	900-1500*	2100-3300*
Dantzic.....	120,000	1200-2600	1000-1800	1900-2450*
Erfurt.....	75,000	1100-2800	900-1700	3000-4000
Frankfurt-on- the-Main....	200,000	1800-3800	1600-2600	4400-6000
Halle.....	100,000	1200-2700	900-1800	3600-5100
Hanover.....	165,000	1300-3300	1200-2100	2200-4200
Kiel.....	70,000	1200-2800	1025-1500	2200-3800
Posen.....	70,000	1200-2700	1050-1650	3300-4500
Stettin.....	120,000	1300-2800	1200-2250	2800-3800
Wiesbaden....	65,000	1200-3200	1200-2600	3600-4200

The first number represents the minimum salary at which the teacher begins. This is increased, generally commencing after five years' service, and thereafter in periods of three years until the maximum is reached. There is no universal law governing this increase, each community deciding for itself. Berlin has the best arrangement in this respect, which is both just and wise,—just to the teacher and wise on the part of the authorities. As it illustrates the general plan of increasing salaries, and as it is

the best and fairest of all plans yet devised, we give it. It is as follows:

The teacher begins after leaving the seminary with 1200 marks; after 4 years it is increased to 1600; after 6 years, 1900; after 8 years, 2200; after 11 years 2600; after 14 years, 2800; and every third year thereafter an increase of 200 marks, until the maximum of 3800 marks is reached, after 31 years' service. The Rektor begins with 3400 marks, receives 3800 after 6 years, and the maximum of 4200 marks after 12 years' service. This recognizes the increased efficiency of the teacher with the years of experience and broadening of knowledge, and thereby encourages teachers to continue their work with the sure hope of a competency in their later years sufficient for their simple wants and those of their family. This, together with their pension, of which we shall speak later, places the teacher in position to carry forward the responsible duties of his office without anxiety as to his present and future wants. This is true of teachers of city schools. But it is far from true in the country districts. In many parts of Prussia, the gradual increase of salaries with years of service is not carried out by the communities employing them. To assist the communities, and at the same time reward the teacher better for his services, the state grants, in all places of less than 10,000 inhabitants, to each teacher an additional 100 marks to his salary after 10 years' service, another 100 after 15 years, 20 years, 25 years, and 30 years each. This additional sum is included in the statement of salaries (page 173) already given.

The question of increase in salaries has been agitated during the past few years throughout all parts of the German Empire. In most of the states, and in many individual cities and provinces, where the whole kingdom has not made a forward movement, success has crowned the

effort, while Prussia as a whole still remains unchanged. Saxony, Baden, Gotha, Saxe-Weimar, and other states, besides many cities, have increased salaries materially within the last two years.

Other German states ahead of Prussia.

The governmental district of Potsdam adopted in 1892 a schedule of salaries for that district, which illustrates what is desired for the whole of Prussia. It divides the teachers of the district into six classes, five classes being arranged according to the size of cities and the sixth being the country schools. The opposite table will illustrate the workings of the plan.

This schedule of salaries, or a similar one, would in a measure satisfy the teachers if carried out throughout the whole kingdom, and is an act of justice which must be carried out within a few years, or the schools will materially suffer. Already the Minister of Education has placed himself on record as "not being responsible for the success of the schools unless this reform is carried out."

This plan recognizes the principle generally carried out, not alone in the cities, but in all parts of Germany where any plan is followed, that of regular increase of salary in periods of two, three, four, or five years, according to the length of service, until the maximum is reached.

It will be noticed, too, that the salaries of male and female teachers are relatively not so far apart as in America. In Berlin, for example, both sexes begin upon the same salary, 1200 marks, and while the maximum salary of the female teacher is only 2200 marks and that of the male teacher is 3800 marks, the former is reached after eighteen years' service, while the latter not till after thirty-one years of teaching. Even then, when the maximum is reached, the female teacher receives about sixty per cent as much as the male teacher, a higher relative per cent than will be found in any of our great cities.

SALARIES (IN MARKS) OF THE POTSDAM DISTRICT.

I. Class.

Kinds of Teachers.	Salaries.						Allowance for Rent.
	For the first 10 years.	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30	After 30 yrs.	
Rektors.....	2400	2600	2800	3000	3300	3600	600
Head teachers*....	2400	2600	2800	3000	3300	3600	600
Male teachers.....	1400	1600	1800	2000	2300	2600	450
Female teachers....	1000	1100	1200	1300	1450	1600	200

II. Class.

Rektors.....	2000	2200	2350	2500	2700	2900	500
Head teachers.....	1750	1950	2100	2250	2450	2650	500
Male teachers.....	1300	1500	16500	1800	2000	2200	300
Female teachers...	1000	1090	1180	1300	1420	1540	160

III. Class.

Rektors.....	1850	2050	2200	2350	2550	2750	400
Head teachers.....	1600	1800	1950	2100	2300	2500	400
Male teachers....	1200	1400	1550	1700	1900	2100	250
Female teachers...	900	990	1080	1200	1320	1440	140

IV. Class.

Rektors.....	1700	1840	1950	2050	2200	2300	300
Head teachers.....	1500	1640	1750	1850	2000	2100	300
Male teachers.....	1100	1240	1350	1450	1600	1700	200
Female teachers...	850	920	990	1080	1170	1270	100

V. Class.

Rektors.....	1600	1750	1850	1950	2100	2200	200
Head teachers.....	1400	1550	1650	1750	1900	200	200
Male teachers.....	1050	1200	1300	1400	1550	1650	180
Female teachers...	800	870	940	1030	1120	1220	100

VI. Class.

Male teachers.....	1000	1150	1250	1350	1500	1600	100-150
Female teachers....	750	820	890	980	1070	1160	75

* Most German schools have a head teacher who is a sort of vice-principal. In some cases the principal is called head teacher instead of Rektor.

The table given below shows the income of women in the Prussian common schools:

Amount of Salaries, Marks.	Number of Teachers.	Amount of Salaries, Marks.	Number of Teachers.
Less than 800	2	1201-1350	934
801-450	10	1351-1500	806
451-600	82	1501-1650	615
601-750	371	1651-1800	394
751-809	256	1801-1950	249
810	34	1951-2100	49
811-900	1055	2101-2250	19
901-1050	1749	2251-2400	9
1051-1200	1805		
		Total.....	8439

A comparison of this table with the corresponding table for male teachers (page 173) shows that the salaries of women are relatively better than those of men. While the number of the former receiving less than 900 marks is 21 per cent of the whole number of women teachers, the number of the latter is 33 per cent. A comparison of the salaries of the two sexes for all of the provinces shows the following: In the country the salaries of female teachers is 87 per cent of those of males; in cities, 70 per cent. In all parts of Germany women are gaining ground as teachers, and the above statistics tend to show that it is not because they are so much cheaper, but because of their fitness for the work of teaching.

The pay of women as well as that of men in the kingdom of Saxony is larger than that of Prussia. Indeed, the conditions in Saxony are considered the best of any in Germany so far as liberality in the support of schools is concerned.

The following table will show the salaries in the higher schools in Prussia, such as *Gymnasias*, *Realschools*, *Realgymnasias*, etc., which have been regulated since 1892.

While the discussion of the higher schools does not come within the scope of this work, this table will be interesting as a means of comparison.

SALARIES (IN MARKS) IN HIGHER SCHOOLS.

Cities.	Principal.	Regular Teachers.	Special Teachers and Assistants.
Berlin.....	6600-7200	2100-4800	1600-3200
Cities of 50,000 or more	5100-6000	2100-4800	1600-3200
All other cities.....	4500-6000	2100-4800	1600-3200

There is an allowance for rent in each case of from 600 to 1000 marks for principals, from 360 to 660 marks for regular teachers, and from 160 to 432 marks for assistants, according to number of years of service. The increase in salary takes place in periods of from three to seven years until the maximum is reached.

The salaries of teachers in the teachers' seminaries are also fixed in Prussia as follows:

SALARIES (IN MARKS) IN TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

Seminaries.	Principal.	Head Teacher.	Ordinary Teacher.	Assistant Teacher.	Female Teacher.
Berlin...	4000-5400	3600-4800	2400-2600	1200-1800	1500-2100
Provincial	4000-5400	3000-4000	1800-3200	1200-1800	1000-2000

In addition there is also the customary allowance for rent in case a dwelling-place is not furnished.

These tables will sufficiently illustrate the question of teachers' salaries, and when these amounts are divided by four to reduce to dollars, and when it is remembered that long years of preparation are absolutely necessary in order to get an appointment at all, and that many years of service must be given before the maximum is reached, the American teacher will be able to have some fair conception of this question. Undoubtedly one must be free from anxious care for "daily bread" in order to give the best

strength to any calling, and this is especially true of the teacher's calling. That a great many German teachers are not free from this care has been testified to by the highest authority in educational matters in Germany, the Minister of Public Education. And yet, the teachers go on with the daily duties of their school-room patiently, faithfully, and devotedly, as though all of their wants were fulfilled. They are deserving of better financial support, which may the near future bring them!

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

IN the last few chapters we have discussed the training, examination, appointment, and support of teachers. The question now arises, What lessons do these subjects teach that can be applied to America? We turn our attention first to the training of teachers in America.

To be admitted to a normal school there should be qualifications equal to those necessary to enter college, though not necessarily the same qualifications.* The fitting of teachers for the common schools does not require training on such narrow lines as the definite requirements of college entrance demand, especially the preparation to enter a classical course. The various sciences are of far more importance to the teacher of the common school than Greek or Latin. The course of pupils in the high school who have decided to go to the normal school should be shaped to that end. The normal school course should be two years, no candidates under eighteen years of age being admitted. Thus if the boy (or girl) enters the high school at fourteen, at eighteen he would be ready for the normal schools, and at twenty would graduate. If he entered the high school a year later, and consequently graduated from the normal school at twenty-one, so much the better.

Entrance
qualifica-
tions of a nor-
mal school.

Candidate to
be 18 years
of age.

The two years' course should include a continuation of

* Since writing this chapter we find that this agrees substantially with the recommendation of the Committee of Fifteen.

the academic studies, but especially the purely pedagogical work, such as history of education, theory of teaching, school law, didactics, together with psychology, and philosophy of education. Already during the last half of the first year the students should be required to carefully observe class-work, to attend discussions of the same in the conferences, to attend lectures on pedagogical questions, and to reproduce the work in the form of descriptions or sketches.

During the last year they should have charge of a class of not less than twenty pupils, in two or more subjects, for at least half of the year. For this work they should be held responsible, just the same as if they were teaching independently; it should be subject to criticism and suggestion by the training teacher, who should ever be ready, by kindly advice, wise suggestion, and helpful direction, based upon broad experience, to lead the student-teacher into a proper method of instructing. The object to be sought is not imitation of some method of instruction, but the filling of the student with the inspiration of teaching, leaving each to work out his individual method.

Must teach at least half a year. The former makes him the automaton, the parrot, who gives out each day and each week the same material in the same way, without progress and with little thought; the latter makes him a live being, always thinking and always awakening thought, progressive, energetic, inquiring, having no trouble about method, as his individuality will make his method. This spirit awakened in the young teacher, cultivated and shaped by the experienced teacher, is the highest aim to be sought. There should be daily conferences of the whole class to discuss the work of the day, in which all of the students should take part, the teacher having the final word. There should also be private conferences be-

Individuality to be encouraged.

Daily conferences.

tween the training teacher and each individual, in which things may be discussed which are not for others. The wise critic will not simply point out faults, but will always be able to suggest a remedy.

At the end of the week there should be a general conference at which all of the faculty and the graduating class are present. The work of the week should be reviewed, and sometimes a class of children should be brought in and instructed to furnish a topic for discussion. General pedagogical themes should come up here also for discussion; and also questions of interest in that particular school, such as cases of discipline, promotion, dealing with backward pupils, awakening interest, etc., etc. These questions are of practical value to the young teacher, and will suggest the manner of treatment when he meets them in his future work.

General conference each week.

If this work is carefully carried out, the normal graduate will enter upon his first position with an experience better than that of a teacher of a year's experience without the normal training, in that the former has had practically the same experience as the latter, and has at the same time been wisely directed.

Without discussing the subjects of the course of study in detail, we call attention simply to drawing. Too great stress cannot be laid upon that in preparing teachers for their work. Throughout the course commencing in the high school, if not before, drawing should receive great attention. Every teacher should be able to draw a sketch of an object, an animal, a plant, on the blackboard or on paper, rapidly and accurately. This is one of the teacher's most valuable and necessary accomplishments.

Importance of drawing.

The training above indicated suits the American conditions in that it leaves the most of the academic training to the high school instead of having a three years'

course, as in Germany, where the first year of the teachers' seminary is devoted purely to academic work. This separates the normal from the purely academic work, the academic study in the normal school being carried on for the purpose of deepening and extending the work begun, and also offering opportunity for giving model lessons on the part of the faculty. Better preparation being demanded than most normal schools now require, more time could be devoted to the purely pedagogical work, which is the real business of the normal school.

Difference between this and the German plan.

A difficulty has undoubtedly suggested itself to those familiar with our normal school work, and that is, how to furnish so large classes of pupils to each student-teacher for so long a time. A normal school that graduates 100 teachers a year would need a practice school of about 400 pupils, a condition that could scarcely be met anywhere. But to teach a smaller class of pupils than 20 would illy serve the purpose of fitting a teacher to take charge of a class of 50 or 60 independently; and to teach less than half a year, and less than two subjects, would accomplish but little in establishing good habits and methods of instruction. The only solution of the question apparent is to establish smaller normal schools, say for sixty or seventy students. These should be received only once a year at the opening in September, and when the time comes that teachers are permanently appointed this will adjust itself, as most teachers will be appointed at the beginning of the year, and there will be no demand for the mid-winter graduates. This would require the establishment of many small normal schools, and just as there are certain advantages in small colleges, so there are advantages in a small normal school. The students come into closer contact with their instructors, and with each other; the schools would necessarily be located in small

Smaller normal schools.

towns, so that students would have the advantage of the social life so important for every teacher, and the community would be elevated by the presence of the school; many more young men and women would avail themselves of the opportunity to fit themselves for teaching because the school is near at home, thereby solving the problem of lack of trained teachers; the schools in the neighborhood would not be satisfied with anything but normal teachers, thereby elevating the tone of education. These normal schools, not being as large, would not need be as expensive as those now established, so that no great outlay of money would be required.

**Advantages
of small normal
schools.**

But what shall be done with the normal schools now established? We answer, let them continue as at present so far as numbers are concerned, and where they have not enough pupils in their practice department to meet the above requirements, let an arrangement be made with the local school authorities whereby the students of the normal school shall teach in the public schools. This would enable the local board to shorten their teaching force, and if the normal student be required to teach for a whole term, or, better still, for a whole year, under the inspection of, not alone the normal faculty, but also of the local superintendent acting in harmony with the normal school, none of the parties concerned would be the loser. The young teacher would have the best kind of practice, the pupils would have good teaching, and the school board would save expense. Above all things it is necessary that the students of our normal schools have more actual experience in teaching during their course.

**Local public
school to
work in har-
mony with
the normal
school.**

Another valuable suggestion comes from the Germans, and that is the active interest of the normal school in her graduates when they commence teaching, and the close connection between the normal school and the common

schools of the district. The normal school should have not simply the interest of an *alma mater* in her sons, but should also have a certain authority over the teachers in its vicinity, whether its own graduates or not. The principal should have time to visit schools, so as to make suggestions and be helpful to the teachers, thus keeping the whole system in perfect harmony, so as to subserve the best interests of education. Such oversight could not fail to be of utmost value to the young teacher; and on the other hand, it would be of great value to the normal school, in that it would be kept in touch with the general educational interests of the locality and the state. As the graduates of a normal school are recognized throughout the state and should be free to secure employment anywhere in the state, it is important that all the normal schools work in harmony. Therefore, all must work under the same general plan, and by frequent conferences on the part of the principals, keep in sympathy with each other.

Finally, in each state there should be one or more collegiate normal schools with a full four years' course. The object of these schools should be to fit teachers for the high schools, for principals, for superintendents, and for school-inspectors. A full year of teaching should be required and the training should be fully equal to a college course, only modified to suit the teacher's profession. The course should be so arranged that graduates from lower normal schools could enter and complete the course in the additional two years, and also so as to invite college graduates, who should be able to complete it in one year. The work of the last year, therefore, should be almost entirely pedagogical. Graduates should be recognized as having completed the equal of a college course, and should therefore be entitled to the Bachelor of Arts degree. Students having completed this

course would be far better prepared to teach in the high schools than college graduates who have had only the limited amount of pedagogics that our colleges give, and who have not had the extra year in the normal school above specified. It should always be possible for teachers who have graduated from the lower normal schools, and who have shown marked ability in teaching, to be promoted to higher work. They should be required, however, either to take the last two years' course or pass an examination covering that work and showing the proper pedagogical fitness. Diligent teachers would thus be encouraged to pursue independent study, and some of the best talent would not be excluded from the higher work.

Bachelor of Arts degree for collegiate normal graduates.

Opportunity for ambitious teachers.

The possession of a college diploma alone ought not to admit to the rank of high-school teacher. There should also be required certain professional pedagogical training, obtained either in a college or in a higher normal school, or by experience in lower school work.

These requirements are demanded by the times. Teaching is recognized as a profession, hence the necessity of professionally trained men and women. There is no more reason for a man being admitted to the ranks of professional teacher without professional training than for his admission to the bar or the pulpit without professional preparation, even though he has completed a college course. There is no longer any excuse for this lack of professional training. The state is abundantly able to furnish it, and there are plenty of men and women ready to devote themselves to it if the state will give proper assurance of support and protection to such as will prepare themselves and consecrate their lives to it. How the state shall give this assurance will be discussed in another chapter.

Teaching a profession.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

APPOINTMENT AND SUPPORT OF TEACHERS IN AMERICA.

THE safest and best management of the school interests of a community rests with those most interested, and that is with the community itself. There can never be any other direct school management in America, nor is any other desirable. This is entirely in accord with the spirit of our institutions, and the strong tendency to absolutism so manifest in Prussia would not be tolerated for a moment. The people are jealous of their local rights, and can be intrusted to manage their own school affairs. No one can possibly have so deep an interest in the education of their children as the parents themselves. Hence the parents, through their representatives, must ever control their school interests. But there are certain limitations now observed in which the state asserts its rights, and which must continue to be observed. For example, the state fixes the qualification of teachers and licenses them, decides the minimum of time that school may be kept, taxes property for general school purposes, and supports local boards in the assessment of taxes, and distributes school moneys to communities in which the above conditions are met. In some cases it also enforces attendance at school and fixes the minimum course of study. Thus it will be seen that while the community manages its own schools it must do so subject to certain conditions which the experience and wisdom of the past have taught to be necessary. These

limitations should be extended further, but still without trespassing upon proper local rights. We have already proposed the establishment of state boards of education, and the fixing of a minimum course of study (see p. 51), to which of course every local board must conform.

There are also important changes necessary in the appointment of teachers, which are vital to the success of our schools. Appointments should be made by the local school board as now in communities that employ only a small number of teachers, but the advice of the district school-inspector should be sought. In cities ^{Superintendent-}that employ a superintendent, he should appoint ^{ent to appoint} the teachers, the board confirming. The super- ^{teachers.}intendent should be elected for a period of ten years, and the teachers should be appointed indefinitely. The reason why a superintendent should be appointed for a limited time is that the importance of the position makes it necessary that a man of vigorous powers as well as suitable capacity should occupy it. Thus when debilitated by age or for other reasons he becomes unfitted, complications will be avoided by the expiration of the term. This limit of time for which a superintendent is appointed does not prevent a reappointment at the expiration of a term.*

But the reasons for appointing a superintendent for a limited period do not hold for the regular teachers. Their position is not so important, and a whole system does not depend upon their health or capability. There could always be conditions specified by which, if either the superintendent or teacher should become inefficient, he could be removed. Only immorality or inefficiency should be a cause for removal. In order that normal graduates shall

* The superintendent of the Berlin common schools is appointed for twelve years, and is now on his second term.

prove their fitness before being entitled to a permanent **Three years' appointment, three years of actual teaching experience should be required of them after leaving the normal school.** Then an examination in pedagogical questions should be required of them to test their educational progress, reports of their work should be collected from those under whom they have taught (district school-inspector, superintendent, board of education principal of normal school), and if these are satisfactory, a certificate of permanent teacher should be issued to them. With the training of the normal school or its equivalent, and with the three years' successful experience, school boards will be perfectly safe in appointing teachers to permanent positions. The experience of Germany has shown this to be perfectly safe, as her teachers under this plan are progressive, earnest, and successful, and there is no reason to expect that American teachers with like preparation and like security in their positions would be any less honorable, progressive, or efficient.

But this permanency could not apply to teachers of less training than that of the normal school. Such teachers must be employed for some time to come until there are sufficient fully qualified teachers. It will be noticed that **Teachers not necessarily normal graduates.** we do not insist that all teachers shall be normal graduates, nor that without a normal diploma a teacher is not qualified; but the qualifications, wherever obtained, must be equal to those of a normal graduate, and there must be as long an experience in teaching required as is required of them. It would soon be recognized that the normal schools are the best places to prepare for teaching, but that would not prevent other schools from preparing teachers, nor persons prepared elsewhere from entering the profession. What we insist upon is the necessary qualifications, wherever obtained, and when the state finds that they are possessed, recogni-

tion shall be given by fixed appointments. In this the state does not trespass upon the local rights. The state specifies the qualifications of teachers, as now, only the standard is made higher, and the local board chooses from the number of the state's qualified candidates and gives them permanent positions.

The advantage that normal graduates have in securing positions, the permanency of their positions, their freedom from further examination after being fully inducted into office, would lead many more to enter upon this course, and the time would not be very far distant when a large proportion of the teachers would have completed a normal course. This would give a proper recognition of the normal school as a state institution for the preparation of the teachers of the state.

The plan thus outlined would professionalize teaching in America in a sense by far not yet attained. In a few years the standard of general qualifications of teachers would be immeasurably elevated, and the advantages gained may be briefly stated as follows:

1. It would give a mighty incentive to teachers everywhere to fit themselves to be entitled to permanent positions. 2. It would be a most effective check upon politicians who appoint their favorites **Advantages gained.** without regard to fitness, the state having fixed a standard which no local board would have the right to lower. 3. It would lessen the number of changes made, thereby giving our schools a more stable character, and making the appointments to be made fewer from year to year. 4. It would not prevent a teacher, upon due notice, from bettering his condition, if opportunity offered, by change to another place. 5. It would lead more men to enter the field of teaching, because it would secure them permanent employment, and therefore make the establishment of a home possible. It is the insecurity of the position that leads a

man to hesitate to enter upon the life of a teacher in America more than the smallness of the salary. No man likes to feel that he may be buffeted about by the whims of politicians, without regard to his fitness, his success, or his efficiency; and no true man likes to be compelled to crawl at the feet of such men in order to be retained in position. Therefore, a man who expects to assume the responsibilities of a family will think twice before entering the profession of teaching. Give us permanence in office, and it will not be long that Chicago and Philadelphia will have but four per cent of male teachers, and New York, Brooklyn, Boston, and most other great cities less than ten per cent! This is no disparagement of the work of female teachers. They are admirably fitted to this work, and will ever remain in the teaching force of America largely in the majority. But it is a plea for more men-teachers for the sake of the proper education of our boys and girls. There is something in the character of a man that impresses the child, especially the boy, as no woman can do. The manhood of a man appeals to the boy and furnishes him an example to emulate, a character which he will try to copy. Therefore no boy should complete his school course without having been instructed by a male teacher. An increase in the number of male teachers would therefore be a great blessing to the American schools. 6. It would raise the salaries of female teachers, because it would exclude illy-prepared women who can afford to work cheaper than those more well-prepared. The effect would be to bring the salaries of women to nearly the same point as those of men, the same as it has done in Germany (see p. 178). 7. Finally, permanency of teachers' positions would in time allow the state to estimate the number of new teachers needed each year, thus enabling it to prepare the requisite number with comparative certainty. This is everywhere

**Weak point
in the Amer-
ican school
system.**

recognized as the weakest point in our school system, and it would be found that all of these questions would find their solution from this central idea. Make the teacher's position secure as fast as trained teachers appear, and more teachers will seek better training, until in a few years we shall have a professionally trained corps of teachers.

In conclusion, the question of salaries is of paramount interest. The amount of salary must be left to the local board. But the state should fix the minimum of salary which may be paid a fully qualified teacher, as above specified. **Local board to fix salaries.** Aside from this, and wholly independent from it, there should be granted from the state to each teacher direct a sum of money, say \$100 a year, for each teacher of ten years' active experience, during each year of teaching. This should increase with the years of experience; thus, \$200 after 15 years, \$300 after 20 years, \$400 after 25 years, and \$500 after 30 years, etc., until the teacher is 60 years of age, when he may be retired. **Direct state annuity for experienced teachers.** The higher grade teachers (principals, superintendents, etc.) should have double these amounts. If these amounts are too high, so as to cost the state too much, one half the amounts could be taken. The principle would be the same—that is, encouragement to the teacher to remain in service, and payment of an increasing annuity by the state, regardless of the kind of position held or the salary from the local authorities. This would not only be wisdom on the part of the state, but an act of simple justice to her faithful, experienced, and self-denying servants. It would be an additional incentive to broad preparation, and would invite the best talent into this field of usefulness, and would be a recognition of the value of experience.

It need not be a burden to the state, but, in part at least, the simple changing of the state school funds into a new channel. Such disposition of these funds would be

an inestimable blessing, not alone to the teachers, but through them to the children whom they instruct and the cause of education in general.

Comenius says the teacher should be the sun of the school. This means not alone that he sheds brightness and light upon the hearts and minds of his pupils, but it carries

**The teacher
the light of
the school.**

with it the necessity of his first possessing the light himself. Not alone the light which brings gladness and shows itself by his temperament, but the light of knowledge well in hand, systematized, and with the power to give it out again. To give him this light is the object of the normal school, and the possession of it, with the power to disseminate the same is what the state has a right to expect of all of its teachers. The teacher is the light of the school, because he has the light in himself and knows how to let that light shine.

CHAPTER XXIX.

PENSIONS.

It is the practice in all departments of official service in Prussia for the government to pay a pension to its servants upon their retiring on account of disability or old age. As the teacher is recognized as an official of the state, no exception is made in his case. It is urged that the teacher is deserving of a pension for the following reasons: 1. He has served the community at a salary which was so small as to preclude the idea of laying up anything against old age or sickness. 2. He must spend a long time in preparation, and cannot begin to earn his livelihood until at a later period than business-men and men in many other callings do. 3. He must devote himself entirely to his calling, cannot engage in any other business, nor can he delegate his work to some one else, as can be done in other callings. 4. His calling never leads to possessions, or to the acquirement of property, as in the case of merchants, farmers, and others whose business or profession grows more valuable with the years. Therefore he and his family have nothing to look forward to as an outcome of his calling. 5. His income under the most favorable circumstances will always be far less than that of other callings which he might have entered, and which would have required less strength, preparation, and ability. 6. His office of teacher often excludes him from opportunities of gain which others may accept.

We have already seen that the salaries of teachers in Prussia are so small that barely the necessities of life can

be afforded, and that to secure even these, private teaching, writing, etc., must be resorted to in many cases. To save anything from the salary is an absolute impossibility; therefore the provision of a pension is the only hope for future maintenance that a large majority of the German teachers have.

The law in Prussia is as follows: Every public-school teacher who has taught at least ten years is entitled to a pension of one fourth of his salary at the time he ceases to teach, provided he is obliged to give up teaching on account of physical or mental disability, or if he has reached the age of sixty-five. The time of service is reckoned from the date of entering service as provisional teacher after completing the seminary course. Service in other

**Pensions in
all German
states.**

German states is also recognized by mutual consent among all of the states of the Empire. The value of the perquisites, such as free rent, fire, light, income from school lands, etc., is taken into account in determining the amount of pension. Commencing with one quarter of his salary after ten years' service, the amount of pension increases by one sixtieth each year until it amounts to three quarters of the salary, which is the maximum. Thus after ten years' service the pension is one quarter, or fifteen sixtieths of the salary; add to this one sixtieth each year for 30 years, and the maximum, or forty-five sixtieths, is reached. Suppose a young man completes his seminary course at 21 and enters upon work as a provisional teacher. He becomes immediately a candidate for pension; that is, when his first 10 years of service are completed.* After 10 years of teaching he is entitled to one quarter of his salary if obliged to retire on pension. After 30 years more, or 40 years in all, he would receive

* Until within the last few years the time of provisional teachers was not reckoned, the pension service counting only from the time of taking the oath of office.

the maximum pension allowed. He would thus be 61 years of age, and would have the right to retire on a pension of three quarters of his salary at the age of 65. In the meantime his salary has been steadily increasing, as well as the pension allowance, so that a double incentive is offered the teacher to continue in service.

To illustrate, take the case of a Berlin common-school teacher. After 10 years' service he would draw a salary of 1900 marks. Should he be compelled to give up teaching on account of permanent physical or mental disability, he would be entitled to one quarter of his salary as pension, or 475 marks. Should he, however, teach until the maximum of pension is reached, his salary would then be 3800 marks, and his pension would be three quarters of that, or 2850 marks.

*Illustration
of the pen-
sion laws.*

Although teachers may retire at 65 on pension if they choose to do so, it is very seldom that they do so if still in good health. It is not at all uncommon to find men above 70 still performing their daily tasks in the schoolroom with enthusiasm, zeal, and success. Indeed, they prefer to be employed in that work, which has become second nature to them, and in which they find their greatest joy and satisfaction, rather than retire to lives of idleness.

*Old teachers
continue in
office.*

Besides, if they continue active they draw full salaries instead of three fourths. Even in some of the German states where a more liberal pension is given, amounting sometimes to the full salary, we have known old teachers to go on with their school-work because they loved it, and because the schoolroom was their home and teaching their element.

Pensions are paid monthly beforehand. They cease at the death of the pensioner, excepting in case of his leaving a widow or orphans, when the pension is paid for one month after his death.

*Pensions
cease at death
of pensioner.*

The manner of raising the funds for pensions is as follows: the state pays out of its treasury 600 marks towards meeting the required amount in each case, that is, when the pension amounts to that sum. The balance must be provided for by the community which the teacher has served, and by a deduction from the salary of his successor.

Manner of raising the pensions. The number of pensioners in 1891 was 6091, to whom 5,969,185 marks were paid, averaging 980 marks to each pensioner. This fund was raised as follows:

The state contributed.....	58 $\frac{84}{100}$	per cent.
The community.....	35 $\frac{26}{100}$	“
From salary of successor.....	5 $\frac{20}{100}$	“

To an American who is accustomed to frequent changes of teachers a difficulty will appear, which, however, does not occur in Germany, as teachers generally serve one community a great many years, and often their whole lifetime, so that they are very closely connected with all of the interests of the community and, therefore, they are gladly cared for during the last few years of their lives, when no longer able to teach. It does not last long be-

Pension tax not a burden. cause, as we have seen, the most of them continue at their loved post of duty as long as they are able to do so, faithful servants of the community to the last. Then, too, the part that the state contributes, very largely pays the pension in small communities where this added tax would be a burden. while in larger and wealthier communities, where salaries are better, and consequently pensions higher, the ability to pay is more than correspondingly great. Besides the above allowance from the state treasury, further assistance is rendered in special instances where the community is unable to meet this demand, or when extraordinary circumstances make the pension requirements large.

From 1886 to 1889, 3449 teachers were retired on pen-

sion. This became possible by means of the pension law of 1885, which allows teachers to retire at 65. **Pension law of 1885.** Thus many old men who had become feeble were retired and their places readily filled by young teachers from the normal schools. Many men had been retained longer than was desirable because of the previous lack of trained teachers to supply their places. Another good result was the increased number of positions. Many of the old teachers preferred to conduct the school alone with 100 children or even more rather than have an assistant, and the communities were disposed to humor them. When a change was made two teachers were generally installed. Thus the number of teachers increased from 52,046 in 1873 to 71,731 in 1891, an increase of 38 per cent, while the increase in population for the same time was only 21 per cent. The pension law is therefore beneficent to the teachers during their lives, and also is a blessing to the schools.

As this pension continues only during the life of the teacher, provision for his family is made in the Widows' and Orphans' Fund, which is also under government control. All teachers are required to contribute to this fund, whether married or not. The amount contributed depends chiefly upon the amount of salary. **Pensions for widows and orphans.** The various provincial districts are allowed to levy a yearly sum upon each teacher not to exceed fifteen marks, according to the needs of the fund. Each individual case is taken into account. For example, should a teacher late in life contract a marriage with a young woman who probably as widow would have a claim upon the fund for many years, he would be required to pay more than under other circumstances. Each widow is entitled to 250 marks a year as long as she lives, and should she die leaving children, this pension goes to them until they are sixteen years of age. The state assists in making up this amount in districts where the funds are insufficient.

CHAPTER XXX.

PENSIONS FOR AMERICAN TEACHERS.

It is obvious that pensions according to the German method would not answer for present conditions in America. The insecurity of the teacher's position and frequent changes connected therewith, the lack of any systematic scale of salaries, and the comparatively sufficient salaries paid are factors that do not arise in Prussia. Instead of engaging in a work and carrying it out for a lifetime, or until called to a better position, as is the case with the German teacher, the American teacher is reappointed from year to year, when no adverse political or other influence prevents, but never has any security whatever of holding his place, however faithful, efficient, or successful he may be. Consequently the average length of the teacher's service with us is only about five years, instead of twenty-five as in Prussia. There can never be a thoroughly successful school system in America until this is corrected.

Then, too, the need of pensions for American teachers is certainly not so great as is the need for German teachers. The salaries paid in America, while by no means what they should be, certainly in most cases admit of a comfortable living and do not exclude the idea of saving something against the time of need. So there is not the need of pensions in any such sense as in Germany. Another fact must be taken into account in the discussion of this question. Prussia pensions not only her military but also her civil officials on a plan similar to that of the teachers. All railway- and

**Application
of pensions
to America.**

**Need of pen-
sions not so
great with
us.**

telegraph-employés on the lines belonging to the state, all secretaries and government clerks, all post officials, of whatever kind, are entitled to pensions. With us pensions are chiefly limited to the army and navy, therefore the subject of pensions is regarded quite differently in the two countries. But the same reasons exist for pensioning these other classes in Prussia that exist for pensioning teachers, though not in the same degree, for the teachers are poorest paid of all state officers. And that reason does not exist in American civil relations, nor are civil officers continued long enough in service to warrant a pension.

But in spite of these different conditions it is certain that pensions for teachers is but just to them, and would work great good for the schools. The recent movements in various cities and states show that the subject is securing attention, and doubtless a solution will be found. It will not pauperize the teacher any more than it pauperizes the soldier in America, or the teacher in Germany. When teachers are recognized as state officers, and given permanent positions, as we have elsewhere demanded, the greatest difficulty, that of adjustment, will be removed. When teachers have met the requirements of the state and are admitted to the rank of permanent teacher, a pension could be granted them dependent upon the length of service, whether it be in one school or several. As in the army there are different grades of pensions for officers of various grades, and for privates, so in the teaching profession there should be different pensions for different ranks of teachers.

We have required elsewhere that there shall be two grades of teachers, those having completed the ordinary normal school course or its equivalent, comprising the great mass of common-school teachers, and those having completed the higher normal school course or its equivalent, comprising the high-school

**Still pensions
needed in
America.**

**Two grades
of permanent
teachers.**

teachers, the principals, superintendents, etc. (See page 181.) When these conditions are reached, a scheme for distribution of pensions will be simple. It is not the design to work out the details of the scheme here, but it should be based on the following principles:

1. The common-school teacher should be entitled to the minimum pension after 10 years' service, reckoning from the time of entrance into the rank of permanent teacher, without regard to the salary received, and this should increase from year to year

2. The teacher of the advanced grade should be entitled to a larger pension than the above under the same conditions, his time to count from the time of his entering service after obtaining the advanced certificate, regardless of whether that service be in the common school or in higher work. This would be a proper recognition of those who have taken the advanced preparation and have not been able to secure work in the higher schools.

3. Principals, superintendents, and other school officials, upon whom greater responsibility rests, should be entitled to the pension of the high-school teacher from the time of acquiring that rank, under the same conditions as No. 1, and an additional sum beginning with the time of their induction into the higher office. This also should increase with the years of service, and might again be graded as follows: 1. Principals. 2. Superintendents in cities under 10,000 inhabitants. 3. Superintendents in cities from 10,000-100,000. 4. Superintendents in cities of over 100,000. Provision should also be made for assistant-superintendents, district school-inspectors, etc.

4. The pension of female teachers should be two thirds of that of male teachers of corresponding rank. This difference is necessary because upon the man devolves the responsibility of providing for a family.

5. The teacher should have the right to retire at the age of 60 as pensioner. If he withdraw before that time for any other cause than physical or mental disability, all right to pension should cease.

6. Pensions should be assumed and paid by the state. No other plan could be devised which would satisfactorily meet the present conditions and those that are likely to exist for some time to come.

If left to the community, no teacher well along in years could obtain a position, as every community would be bound to avoid saddling themselves with those who would soon become pensioners. Thus the service of the ripest and best years of a man's life would be lost to the state. Then, too, with so many changes of teachers, it would be difficult to decide to what community the burden of a pension belongs, or what part of such burden. Again, it would be a constant source of friction between teacher and people. The state alone, therefore, can best assume this responsibility, and it is proper that it should do this, as the teachers are its servants.

The state to assume responsibility of pensions.

This plan marks out an ideal for the future, and is based upon the preceding reforms proposed. Until these reforms are inaugurated, what is to be done with those now in service who have given their lives to the state and to the training of the youth? These faithful men and women must be recognized, and some compensation rendered for their years of faithfulness and efficiency without adequate pay. The same general principles above indicated could be applied, the chief difference being in the grades of teachers. This, however, could be adjusted so that teachers of lowest grades should receive the minimum pension, which would be increased with the years of service. Perhaps no pension should be given unless the teacher has been at least twenty

What must be done with present teachers.

years active, and the amount would necessarily be less than in the above case, where broader preparation is demanded.

In so far as teachers have now met the requirements marked out as the ideal to be sought in the state, they should be entitled to a pension under that plan, and this should be continued until gradually all teachers will become entitled to such participation.

Let us look at some of the results that might be expected from the adoption of pensions for the American teachers based upon some such plan as has been outlined.

1. It would encourage men and women to enter teaching and devote their whole lives to it, thereby increasing the number of teachers of experience and maturity.

2. It would give a permanency to the calling of teaching now sadly lacking, in that it would offer an added incentive to those who have begun to continue in the work.

3. It would give assurance which would remove anxiety concerning the future, and thereby enable all the powers of mind and body to be devoted to the schoolroom and to the interests of the pupils.

4. It would recognize the teachers as state officers, thereby adding to their influence in the community.

5. It would tend to systematize educational interests, and thus add to their efficiency and success.

6. It would necessitate the fixing of a definite standard of fitness for those who are to have the benefit of pensions, as the state would necessarily require a return for its investment; this could be assured only by high requirements of preparation and pedagogical fitness.

It may be urged that pensioning teachers savors too much of paternalism, and that the teacher should be paid a salary sufficient for his present wants and to enable him to save for the future. The teacher, like the pastor, must devote his life for the good of his fellow-beings, and therefore he is withdrawn from many active phases of life which

would enable him to make and save money; he does not acquire business habits, nor does he have business opportunities that other men do. It seems that this must always be so if the teacher, like the pastor, is to be of greatest use to the community. Therefore let the state, which the teacher serves, do for him what the Church, which the pastor serves, does for him. All Churches have funds for the help of their old pastors who have given their lives for her; let the state do the same for the teachers who just as truly have devoted their lives for its interests.

The teacher
like the
pastor.

Pensions are just to the teacher, and the state should recognize this obligation, thereby assuring its servants in their old age from want, and showing proper appreciation of a class of men and women who perhaps have done more than any other class in the establishment of the foundations of the state, which in a republic are laid in the intelligence and morality of its citizens.

CHAPTER XXXI.

OTHER KINDS OF SCHOOLS.

WE have now completed the discussion of the common schools of Prussia, but as these do not instruct all of the children, and as the state has oversight of all schools, it remains for us to study such other schools as belong to the common-school system. These are the middle schools, the practice-schools, the private schools, and the higher schools for girls.

While the state fixes the minimum of required school attendance, and of the course of study to which **Parents free to choose kind of school.** schools of all kinds must conform, it leaves all parents free as to choice of school. There have

been for many years schools for the middle classes, which were called "Rektorats," "Bürger," "Stadt" schools, etc. These are all now classified under the term "*Mittel*" schools. They are designed for such children as are to have a wider training than that of the common school, and prepare for entrance to lower classes of the high schools.

The course of study is more extended, and tuition is also **Minister Falk's circular.** charged. In 1872 Minister Falk issued the following regulations concerning these schools:

1. Middle schools may be established in communities where common schools exist, but they must have at least 5 classes, each having a maximum of 50 pupils.

2. The course of study is to be similar to that of the common school, but the work of the first three years of the latter is to be done in two years in the former, thus enabling at least one year to be gained in the middle school

and the course in the same to be extended. Especial attention in the course may be given to such subjects as local conditions make desirable. One modern language may be given in addition to the mother tongue.

3. The apparatus and appliances for teaching must be in accord with the needs of the school. There must also be a library containing such books as are needed by the teachers in their instruction.

4. Only such teachers as have passed the examination required by the state for these schools may be employed.

5. The common schools must not be neglected because of the existence of the middle schools in a community.

The course usually extends to the sixteenth instead of the fourteenth year of age. In some communities boys attend the middle school a few years as a preparation for the *Gymnasium* or *Real* school, which they enter when nine years of age. The object of the course is not to fit for professional life, as pupils who have taken the full middle school course have no admission to the high schools (*Gymnasium*, *Real* school, etc.), but to fit for mercantile life or other non-professional callings higher than common laborers. The instruction is better than in the common school, the classes are smaller, the appliances better, and, because of the tuition charged, the schools have something of an exclusive character, which suits the wishes of well-to-do parents.

In 1891 there were 349 public middle schools attended by both sexes. Where possible the sexes are separated, but in small cities that could not support a school for each sex the boys and girls are taught together. In these schools 86,335 children were taught, being less than two per cent of the total number of children of school age. About four times as many boys attend the special preparatory schools for the *Gymnasium* and the *Real* school as attend the middle school.

Do not fit for
professional
life.

The sexes
educated
separately.

The number of teachers employed in the boys' middle schools in 1891 was:

Male.....	1289
Female.....	2
	1291

In the girls' middle schools:

Male.....	526
Female.....	384
	910

In mixed middle schools:

Male.....	490
Female.....	96
	586

The manner of supporting middle schools is chiefly by tuition, though in some communities the *pro rata* part of the common-school funds may be allowed the middle school, the balance being covered by tuition fees. These fees vary from 12 to 180 marks a year; indeed in one case the tuition is 252 marks a year. The state also assists a little, and there are also small endowments. There has been a considerable falling off in the attendance of these schools in the late years and a corresponding increase in the popularity of the common schools. This is an excellent sign, indicating the breaking down of those class distinctions which are based upon pecuniary circumstances.

The Practice Schools.

We have seen that every teachers' seminary has a practice school connected with it, and in some cases two, one of which is a mixed school, similar to that of the small village, and the other is a graded school. Thus the young teachers have practice in both kinds of work. There are 166 practice schools for the 122 seminaries. The design is that these shall be model schools, which shall furnish the young teacher with an example for his work when a school shall be committed to his charge.

Two kinds of Practice Schools.

These schools are the central point around which the work of the seminary revolves. The teaching is nearly all done by the students of the graduating class, each of whom has full charge of a class from six to ten weeks not less than three hours a day. In order to prepare for genuine school work, the classes average about forty pupils.

There are three ways of obtaining a practice school for a teachers' seminary:

1. By an arrangement with the school authorities of a place whereby a school or certain classes are placed at the disposal of the seminary.

How practice schools are obtained.

2. The state may found a special practice school and charge tuition.

3. The state may found free practice schools.

In most cases the first method is employed, the other methods being resorted to only when no practice school is furnished by the community. Each parent is free to choose whether or not his children shall attend such a school. The instruction, being under the charge of the seminary faculty, especially of the practice teacher, is fully up to the average of the

Practice schools popular.

common schools, so that parents gladly avail themselves of the opportunity to place their children in these schools.

Private Schools.

All private schools must conform to state regulations, and as the state insists upon a standard of educational requirements wherever obtained, it asserts the right to inspect the private schools in order to see that these requirements are met.

In 1850 it was announced "that any person who has satisfied the state authorities of his moral, educational, and technical fitness for the same is free to teach or to establish and conduct a school." At the same time it was asserted "that all public and private institutions of learning are under the control of school boards approved by the state." Teachers must meet the same requirements as common-school teachers, and must also be licensed by the state. In fact, better qualified teachers are demanded for the private schools, not by the state, but by the directors of these schools, in order to draw patronage. The course of study must cover the minimum of state requirements, but it generally goes beyond these.

Since the state has done so much for its schools and made them free, the private schools have not been able to hold their own. Thus we find in 1871 that 107,121 children were taught in the private schools, while 20 years later, in spite of an increase of nearly 25 per cent in population, the number was only 102,546. This is a little less than two per cent of the school-children of the kingdom. In Berlin the pupils in private schools dropped from 21,520 to 18,585 in 1891, a decrease of nearly 14 per cent, while the increase of population for the same period was 36 per cent. The falling off is chiefly in cities, while in country districts there has been a slight increase.

A great advantage in these schools appears in the fact that while the average number of children in the public schools to a teacher is 68 for all Prussia, that in the private schools of like grade is 37, and in private schools of a higher grade only 20, without taking into account teachers employed only a part of their time, as is the case with many in private schools. **Advantages of the private school.**

There now remain the higher schools for girls to discuss, which we will consider in a special chapter.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

GIRLS of the common schools receive about the same education as boys, although, as we have already seen, wherever possible in separate classes. The object of this chapter is to discuss the training of girls in other than the common schools. Corresponding with the middle schools, which, though nominally for both sexes, have come to be largely for boys, are the higher schools for girls.* The design is about the same as that of the middle schools. These schools have grown with astonishing rapidity, especially in the last few years. The noble Queen Louise seems to have been the originator of the idea, which first had the purpose of securing the better education of girls belonging **Influence of Queen Louise.** to the higher classes. It must be admitted that Germany has been very slow to recognize the need of higher education for women, and her secondary and academic schools, which take such noble rank as institutions of learning, have heretofore thought only of the male sex. But a change is gradually taking place, and better schools are provided for girls than ever before, though the so-called girls' higher schools by no means compare with the *Gymnasium* or *Real* school for boys.

In 1873 a conference of leading principals and teachers **Conference of 1873.** of girls' high schools was called by Minister Falk, and the result of their deliberations may be summed up as follows:

I. The end to be sought in higher schools for girls is to

* Höhere Töchterschulen.

give girls a suitable general culture corresponding to that given boys, preparing them to enter into the intellectual life of the nation, and also to cultivate such talents as may be peculiar to each. These schools should also have in mind the fitting of girls for some future calling.

II. There should be middle schools for girls corresponding to the middle schools for boys. Their course should be beyond that of the common schools, and should include either the French or the English language. There should also be higher schools for girls to fit them for the higher walks of life. While the number of subjects taught in the latter should not be many more than those of the middle schools, they should go deeper and more thoroughly into those subjects. Both English and French should be taught and their literature studied. There should be both kinds of the above schools wherever they can be maintained.

III. As these are under the direction of the state, it is the duty of the state to assist them exactly as it assists the *Gymnasias* and the *Real* schools for boys. When, **State should** however, they are private institutions, such help **assist.** from the state should not be granted except when they follow the normal course of study specified by the state.

IV. Pupils should be admitted at the end of the sixth year and retained until the end of the sixteenth year. There should be three grades—lower, middle, and upper. The number of hours per week should be for the lower grade 22 to 24 hours, for the middle and upper grades 30 hours. Gymnastics and needlework should be obligatory. The number of pupils in the classes of the two lower grades should not exceed 40, and in the upper grade should be still less. The school-work should be nearly all done at school, in order to leave time for the performance of **Limited** home duties. At the most one hour a day of **amount of** home-work for the lower grade, one and a half **home work.** for the middle, and two hours for the upper grade should

be required. The subjects taught should be religion, the German language as the basis of all instruction; French, English, history, sciences, drawing, singing, needlework, gymnastics, geography, arithmetic, and natural history.

COURSE OF STUDY.

Religion.—A similar course to that of the boys' middle schools, with special emphasis upon ethical teachings, as well as a more thorough study of such questions as are of special value to cultured women.

German.—Ability of the pupil to correctly speak and write the native tongue, to give connected descriptions with fluency and accuracy, both oral and written; knowledge of the grammar, acquaintance with the chief authors of German literature and their works, especially since the time of Luther.

French.—Knowledge of the grammar, ability to write letters and simple compositions correctly, and to converse on ordinary topics with correct pronunciation; ability to read fluently and understand a French book; acquaintance with the principal classic French authors and works.

English.—Course similar to that in French.

History.—Knowledge of the principal events of general history, especially those of Greece and Rome; German history and that of the neighboring states studied contemporarily.

Geography.—Physical and political geography of the five continents; general knowledge of the geography of Europe and accurate knowledge of that of Germany; the principal facts of physical and mathematical geography.

Arithmetic.—Knowledge of necessary practical reckoning, and of weights, measures, etc.; ability to solve problems in whole numbers, fractions, and decimals independently, accurately, and rapidly; ability to solve arithmetical problems mentally.

Natural History.—The three kingdoms of matter, with especial reference to types and families found in the locality; knowledge of useful and poisonous plants; some acquaintance with the formation and structure of the earth.

Sciences.—General knowledge of the manifestations of electricity, magnetism, light, heat, sound, the laws of physics, mechanics, etc.; elements of chemistry, especially those things that are of use in practical life.

Drawing.—Freehand drawing; use of drawing implements; drawing from models, objects, and landscapes; perspective drawing.

Writing.—A good, plain, free, and rapid handwriting.

Gymnastics, Needlework, and Singing, each to have two hours a week.

This was the course suggested for the girls' schools, having a ten years' course commencing with the sixth and ending with the sixteenth year. The conference also recommended for the middle girls' schools a course extending from the close of the sixth to the close of the fourteenth year, with five classes, the same number of hours per week as above indicated, with less home-work, the course to be similar to that above, only narrower, and requiring but one modern language.

V. The fifth general topic had reference to the teachers. For directors only academically trained men should be chosen. Women may be chosen under certain conditions after having passed a special examination for that purpose. Teachers of the upper classes must have passed the special examination which entitles them to teach in the middle schools (boys' or girls'), while teachers of the lower classes must possess the qualifications necessary for the common-school teacher.

The year following the conference the minister carried into effect all of the suggestions practically, excepting No. III., which requires assistance from the state. As the

state has not the means to apply in this direction, the minister recommended that the provinces, districts, and communities take this burden voluntarily upon themselves, which many have done, as statistics which we give later show. The action of the minister was advisory rather than mandatory, but many of his suggestions have been carried into effect. The position of the girls' higher schools in the educational system of Prussia cannot be said to be as yet fully assured, and the recent (1894) action of the government in shortening the advanced course of the girls' schools from ten to nine years must be regarded as a backward step, which is to be deplored.

There are two kinds of higher schools for girls—public and private. The public girls' schools are mostly city institutions. In many cases they prepare for the teachers' seminary. The number of pupils in the 201 high schools for girls in 1891 was 44,935. The average cost for each pupil was about 123 marks, and the total cost was 5,339,-052 marks. This expense is met by the following means:

Tuition fees.....	70 per cent
Endowments	2 “ “
Local taxes.....	27 “ “
State contributions.....	1 “ “
	100

The tuition fees vary from 24 to 120 marks a year. It is of interest to note that the average cost from public funds to each inhabitant of Prussia for the various kinds of schools is as follows:

For common schools.....	4.89 marks
“ boys' high schools.....	1.05 “
“ middle schools.....	.40 “
“ girls' high schools.....	.18 “

The policy of the state, it will thus be seen, is to give a

common-school education to all of its children free of cost, and we have already seen that 93 per cent of the school-children of Prussia take advantage of this privilege. But if better advantages are desired in the way of more exclusive schools or more advanced courses, parents are required to pay for them by tuition fees, the community and the state bearing a minor part of the expense. The smaller part borne by the public enables these schools to exist and prosper, while those receiving the direct benefit of them must bear the chief burden. America is more liberal than Germany in this respect in that not only are her common schools free, but also her high schools, while in the latter country tuition must be paid in all higher schools.

Ninety-three per cent of the children taught in the common schools.

About 58 per cent of the teachers in the girls' high schools are male, and the principals are usually of the same sex.

The employment of better teachers, the smaller number of pupils in a class, the better schoolrooms and school appliances, the more extended course of study, together with a certain kind of exclusiveness, make these schools to be preferred. Daughters of physicians, officers, merchants, and others of the well-to-do class generally attend them.

Advantages of the girls' high school.

But these schools do not by any means furnish a training equal to that furnished boys; accordingly, during late years the question of *Gymnasia* for girls has been agitated, and three have been established within the last four years—the first at Karlsruhe in Baden, the second at Berlin, and the third at Leipsic. The course is four years, corresponding somewhat with the last four years of the boys' *Gymnasium*, especial attention being given to the classics. Girls to enter must be from 16 to 18 years of age, and must be prepared to do the work of the lowest class. This would mean a preparation somewhat

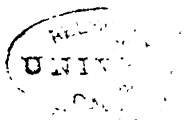
Gymnasiums for girls.

beyond that given in the girls' high schools having the nine years' course. Thus there are no schools which properly prepare for these girls' *Gymnasias*. It will be remembered that the boys' *Gymnasias* have a continuous course of nine years, beginning with the ninth or tenth year of age.

This movement has not met with the support that was hoped for by the advocates of higher education for women in Germany, and what the outcome will be is decidedly **Discouraging outlook for girls' gymnasiums.** problematical. The institutions are entirely private, the state, which grants such ample support for *Gymnasias* for boys, not giving a *pfennig* to assist those for girls. And what is perhaps still worse, there is no outlook for recognition by the state, either by admission to the universities or by permitting them to take the state examination qualifying for teaching in the higher schools. The only state of the German Empire that makes an exception to this is the Grand Duchy of Baden, which recently (April, 1895) has opened the doors of her two universities, Heidelberg and Freiburg, to women who have had the training of a *Gymnasium* on equal terms with men. This state, which was **Baden opens her universities to women.** the first to have a *Gymnasium* for girls within its borders (Karlsruhe), stands among the foremost states of Europe in matters of progressive educational ideas. This is a most gratifying event in the history of education in Germany, which marks a new epoch for her women. True, several of the other universities admit women to lectures, provided the consent of the professor and the Minister of Education can be obtained; but this does not carry with it the right to matriculate or to be a candidate for a degree. The most who have availed themselves of this privilege thus far have been American and English women, in increasing numbers, though still in only isolated cases. Indeed, heretofore there have been no means for German women to

obtain the necessary preparation to enable them to secure even the above limited privilege. The objection that conservative professors make is, that the admission of women to the lectures will prevent a free discussion of many subjects, and also require a recasting and revising of their lectures. **Objections of professors.**

The conservatism of the German people; the jealousy of the men against women entering the professional and intellectual fields which men alone so long have occupied; the fear that too much education will make woman a "bluestocking," and thereby unfit her for her first and most sacred sphere—that of motherhood and presiding genius of the home; the lack of a demand on the part of educated men that the wife shall be their equal and companion in intellectual life; and perhaps more than all else, the content of German women with present attainments, and want of ambition to measure themselves with the sterner sex in intellectual fields—all of these things present difficulties in the way of the higher education of women which can be removed only after a long period of time. But the facts above given in regard to the breaking down of the barriers that have excluded her from the university, and the wonderful increase in the number of women admitted to the work of teaching during the last few years, as we have shown elsewhere (p. 166), are most encouraging signs, which give promise of still better things for woman in Germany. **Difficulties in the way of higher education for women.**



CHAPTER XXXIII.

INDUSTRIAL (FORTBILDUNGS) SCHOOLS.

IN order to further train the children after the completion of the common-school course, most of the German states have established the so-called "Fortbildungs" schools. The object of these schools is—

1. To review the studies already gone over, going deeper into the subjects, and endeavoring to keep up an interest in study.

Object of the Fortbildungs schools.

2. To establish the moral life and fix good habits.

3. To give such industrial instruction as shall prepare for some trade or calling in life. The industrial training is suited to the wants of each community. Thus in a mining or manufacturing section the Fortbildungs schools give chief attention to matters connected with these interests, thereby meeting a practical want. They cover the period from 14 to 18 years of age. Attendance in Saxony and some other German states is compulsory, but there is no general law in Prussia requiring attendance upon these schools, though each community may make **Attendance voluntary.** such regulations for itself as it pleases. Where compulsory attendance is required, no employer has a right to detain his employés; indeed, he is practically held responsible for the attendance of boys in his employ. He must also contribute towards the tuition of each boy employed by him. The same rules apply to parents whose sons are still under their care. Tuition fees are not suf-

ficient for their support, the balance being made up by private gifts, by local taxes, and by state aid.

The state prescribes a normal minimum course which must be complied with in order to receive state aid. This includes—

**Normal
course of the
Fortbildungs
schools.**

1. *The German language*, especially as used for business purposes, and in writing business letters.
2. *Arithmetic*, including the measuring of surfaces and solids, together with what is necessary for business life.
3. *Drawing*, to which great attention is given, and which is of utmost value to practical life.
4. *Writing*, seeking to give a plain, rapid hand.
5. Instruction in natural science, with particular reference to its use in the industries.

There are two general grades, which may be subdivided according to circumstances. In the lower grade general culture is the main object, although reference is had to the future calling for which the young man intends to fit himself. In the upper grade the development of industrial skill, the training of the eye and hand, is the chief purpose. In addition to the subjects of the common school, physics, chemistry, practical and mercantile arithmetic, bookkeeping, and commercial correspondence are taught. Where there is a demand for modern languages opportunity is furnished for their acquirement. In the trades schools drawing is the chief subject taught, and not less than 8 hours a week, for two years at least, is expected. Freehand drawing is from objects, while sections of machines, etc., are drawn with instruments; 8 to 10 hours a week should be required. Usually evenings and Sundays are chosen for the sessions of the Fortbildungs school, each session being from 2 to 3 hours in length. In country districts 4 to 6 hours a week are required.

**Divided in
two classes.**

**Sessions
evenings
and Sundays.**

Although attendance is not compulsory, in most parts of Prussia these schools are attended very regularly, and the youth are glad to avail themselves of this opportunity. There are over 1200 such schools in the kingdom, in which about 70,000 youth are being instructed. They are not generally for girls, although there are in many communities schools in which they also can learn chiefly for boys. stenography, commercial correspondence, and other subjects, which prepare them to gain a livelihood.

The instruction is usually given by teachers of the regular schools, who make use of this opportunity to add to their income, though practical specialists are employed in schools for artisans.

Berlin has a splendid system of Fortbildungs schools under the direction of the city school authorities. Attendance is not compulsory, but over 14,000 young men and women availed themselves in 1894-5 of these fine opportunities furnished by the city for their advancement in knowledge and to fit them for some useful calling. The instruction costs 2 marks for each two-hour course and 4 marks for each four-hour course for a half year. No student is excluded from a course from want of funds, there being means provided for worthy students who cannot pay. Opportunity is offered to learn almost every trade or calling, the number of professions taught in 1894-5 being 163, embracing every branch of industry. The courses given were as follows:

In German.....	150	courses	with	4568	students
“ arithmetic.....	150	“	“	4355	“
“ general drawing.	169	“	“	4759	“
“ technical “ .	127	“	“	3449	“
“ bookkeeping....	70	“	“	1988	“
“ geometry.....	25	“	“	684	“
“ physics.....	39	“	“	1215	“
“ French.....	67	“	“	1455	“

In English.....	52	courses with	1142	students
“ Modelling.....	20	“ “	397	“
“ Miscellaneous... 159	“ “	4468	“	

City Superintendent Bertram takes great interest in the development of these schools. He does not want attendance to be compulsory, believing that the habit of regular attendance acquired in the common schools, and the interest in the subjects themselves, will be sufficient to secure regular attendance. The results have amply justified his opinion, as attendance is very regular, while the pupils work with added zeal and interest from the very fact of their freedom. These industrial schools are therefore a great blessing to ambitious young men and women to prepare themselves to be skilful artisans, merchants, and workmen, and for other practical pursuits.

Superintendent Bertram's liberal ideas.

It must be confessed, on the other hand, that the Fortbildungs schools in the country and in small towns are not a decided success. The opportunities furnished, of course, cannot be so varied as in a large city, and therefore the individual wants and tastes cannot be consulted. Then, too, the vast difference between country and city children—a difference far greater than one finds in America—is an important factor. Country children are subjected to longer hours when they enter service than are city children; besides, contact with men and things in city life sharpens the intelligence of the latter. We have seen how the method of instruction leaves the child at 14 with but little ability or inclination to continue the pursuit of knowledge.

Fortbildungs schools in the country not wholly a success.

The city boy with opportunity to receive instruction in the profession which he has chosen is very likely to attend the Fortbildungs school; while the country boy, tired from overwork, having perhaps no higher ambition than to be a day-laborer or servant, and having only a limited number

of branches to choose from, is not likely to voluntarily attend school; and if attendance upon the Fortbildungs school is compulsory, the school is a bore for both pupils and teachers. It must be admitted, therefore, that the problem of the further development of the intellectual side of the youth of Germany after leaving the school at 14 is by no means solved.

Its solution would seem to us to be much nearer if the methods of instruction in the 8 school years were modified so as to awaken more self-activity and independence on the part of the pupils. This will leave the children eager to know more of the secrets of knowledge, and when they have satisfied the law as to educational requirements, they will be prepared for something more, and will be eager to attain it. Then will the Fortbildungs schools have a great field before them, and will fill an important place in the educational system.

Method of instruction in the common schools must be changed.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

THE kindergarten is a private enterprise in Prussia, though the school board of the community has oversight of it, and none can be established without consent of the school authorities. None of the subjects that belong to the elementary school course may be taught in the kindergarten, the state schools preferring to take the children without any special school preparation, and begin from the start with their own methods. In some localities children have been kept by consent of the school board in the kindergarten until their eighth or ninth year, the kindergarten taking the character of private preparatory schools. But this is allowed only when such as are above six years of age are given the instruction of the elementary schools required by law, in rooms and classes separate from the kindergarten, and by teachers licensed by the state. No part of the expense is a public tax, nor are the kindergartens any part of the school system. Indeed, the kindergarten is not regarded as a school, but as a place for taking care of little children whose mothers must go out to work during the day. Hence young women of but little education are often found in charge of the Kindergartens. School authorities and teachers generally regard the kindergarten as possessing but little educational value, and in fact many believe it to be a positive detriment to the educational advancement of the child. The following state-

Private institutions.

Kindergartens not regarded as a school.

ment of an eminent German educator fairly expresses the **Educators generally opposed to the kindergarten.** general sentiment among teachers: "It is better for children to be in charge of a kindergarten, or institution of that kind, than to be left alone at home or to be allowed to run about the streets. As a pedagogical institution, the kindergarten has no value."

The following rescript from the department of the Minister of Education is so suggestive, not alone of official opinions on this matter, but of those of schoolmen generally, that we give it in full:

BERLIN, April 7, 1884.

"It has come to the knowledge of the royal government that in the kindergarten of Fräulein N. in M. not only plays are taught, but also a beginning is made in reading and number, short poems are taught, and children's songs sung. There is no harm in the latter; it is allowed that **Limitations of the government.** only short prayers, and verses of songs that the children can comprehend, be taught in these institutions. Everything that pertains to the work of the elementary schools, every specific preparation for the work of the latter, must be strictly excluded, and these schools can in no way be allowed to take the character of institutions of learning. Especially can neither reading nor arithmetic be allowed a place in them.

"The royal government takes this occasion to call the special attention of district and local school-inspectors to these matters in their inspection of all schools for small children."

Thus it will be seen that the government definitely states its position in regard to the kindergarten. It intends to guard against the too early introduction of severe mental activity whereby the children may be injured, or acquire an aversion to study; and secondly, not to allow the introduction of methods which will not harmonize with the **Kindergarten teachers not regarded as teachers by the state.**

regular methods of the elementary school. Nor is it required that teachers of kindergartens shall possess the qualifications demanded of all teachers in private as well as public schools. They are not regarded by the state as teachers, but are simply women who by moral character and natural bent are fitted to take care of little children.*

The scope of the kindergarten, according to the idea of the school authorities and as practised in the institutions themselves, is fully indicated in a rescript from the Department of Education given out in 1870, the situation, however, not having materially changed since that time:

1. "Institutions for the care of little children—kindergartens, etc.—take in charge little children whose parents are obliged to go out to work. The purpose of ~~The rescript~~ these institutions is to watch over and interest ~~of 1870.~~ the children, as well as to teach them cleanliness, order, and good habits.

2. "There may also be kindergartens established for well-to-do parents who cannot give the necessary time to their children. Games, walks in the open air, and light physical exercises are indulged in, while short poems and songs are learned. They cannot, however, interfere with the work of the elementary school, which begins when the child is six years of age.

3. "Although these institutions are private, and cannot be supported by public tax, they are under the control of the school board, and can be established only with con-

* In describing the position of the kindergarten, the German language admits of a distinction that is hard to make in English. Thus an "Erziehungsanstalt" is an institution for *educating* or *training*, while an "Unterrichtsanstalt" is an institution for *instructing*. The kindergarten is classified under the former; that is, it may train and in a sense educate, but must not give the formal instruction which belongs to the elementary schools, and which must not commence until after the sixth year.

sent of the same. They may be established by persons of good moral character possessing aptness in the management of little children, even though they have not passed the examinations required of teachers in the regular schools.

4. "The state requires all children to attend school regularly after the sixth year. If children are kept in the kindergarten after that time they must be taught in separate rooms and by properly licensed teachers.

5. "In addition to amusements, physical exercise, songs, and little poems, it is important to implant in the souls of the children love of God and reverence for sacred things.

6. "It is recommended that school boards encourage the establishment of these schools, and assist by every possible means in their maintenance; yet attendance cannot be made obligatory, nor is it the duty of the state to give them financial support."

With the above limitations placed upon the kindergarten it will readily appear that it can prosper only with difficulty; and the fact is, as might be expected, its influence from an educational standpoint is generally not healthy. As the teachers are only required to possess good moral character and natural bent for caring for children, they

Teachers often poorly trained. often lack the professional training so necessary for good teaching. Many of the so-called

kindergartens, therefore, are simply makeshifts, in which Froebel's plays are introduced as a means of employing the children, but without regard to system or a definite end, the main purpose of the institutions being to take care of the children until the mothers come for them. It is no wonder, therefore, that educators generally are opposed to them as they now exist. As might be expected, these children enter the elementary school at the sixth year, with bad habits acquired in kindergartens, where order was scarcely known, and where system could only be termed chaos.

This is not the fault of Froebel's teachings, but of their

wrong application. These teachings properly applied, whether it be by the intelligent mother in the home or by the school for little children of whatever name, are most healthful and beneficial, and should serve to stimulate and direct the child activities so as to be of great assistance in his after school life.

Froebel's ideas are certainly more successfully applied in America than in Germany. Undoubtedly this is largely owing to the freedom accorded the kindergarten in our country, where the state does not interfere with this work nor hinder its application. Germany is perfectly sound in guarding against too early severe mental activity, and her eminent kindergartners fully recognize this; but she is wrong in restricting their freedom, in inspecting them as schools but not recognizing them as such, and in not recognizing their teachers as teachers.

Kindergartens in America better than those of Germany.

The question now arises, What place has the kindergarten in our system of education? We answer: 1. There should be kindergartens established in connection with the school system of each village or city at public cost, the same as the other schools, the number to depend upon the needs.

Application to American school system.

2. The teachers should be appointed the same as other teachers, but must have been especially prepared for kindergarten work.

3. These schools should be under the direction of the school board and the school superintendent, the same as other schools.

4. A course should be marked out which would harmonize with the primary-school course, and yet be flexible enough to allow great freedom to the teacher. Great care should be taken that the work be not beyond the mental capacity of the children; indeed, but little mental work should be allowed. Chief attention should be given to

bodily development, and the formation of habits of cleanliness, politeness, regularity, and order.

5. Children from 4 to 6 years of age should be admitted, though there should be absolutely no compulsion as to attendance.

But the presence of the kindergarten in a community should not be an excuse for mothers to shirk their sacred duty to their children. It is certainly far better that children should not be placed in the hands of strangers before the sixth year, even for only a few hours a day, if the mother is capable of intelligently directing the development of the child in those early years. This is the most important and sacred duty of motherhood, and only necessity and lack of ability should ever be

**Kindergar-
tens must
not supplant
the mother's
duty.**

an excuse for committing this charge to other hands. The mother is the natural educator of the young child; she should prepare herself for this God-committed trust, and must not shift this responsibility upon some one else. There can be no duty for the woman and mother that shall supersede the duty of caring for and training her own children, especially in their earliest years. She should study to know all that is best and wisest in the training of children, and Froebel's plays and theories may be understood and applied by her in her own home. In this way she can serve her children, and through them her country and humanity, as in no other conceivable way. This is her one transcendent duty during

**Highest duty
of mother-
hood.**

the early years of her children to which she must consecrate herself. Froebel sought not alone to reach poor children who could not be properly taught at home, but also to instruct mothers how to teach their children. He never meant to furnish an excuse for mothers to shirk their duty to their children, and no such conclusion can be drawn from his writings. One of the best preparations for the duties of future

motherhood that young women could take would be a thorough course in a kindergarten. Thus the teachings of Froebel would in time bear richest fruit, not only in the kindergarten, but better still in the homes, under the wise guidance of consecrated and intelligent mothers.

CHAPTER XXXV.

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE UNFORTUNATE.

THE institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, idiots, orphans, incorrigibles, and houses of refuge which have schools connected with them, are under the direction of the school authorities, therefore a little space must be devoted to a study of them. The teachers of these institutions are state officers, who must prepare themselves for their work, and are entitled to the same rights as other state teachers.

Blind children often attend the regular schools, where they make more rapid progress than the other children, because they are undisturbed by their surroundings. The German method of instruction, that of relating to the children, is especially favorable for the blind children. When parents are able to wholly or partially support their children in the institutions they are required to do so. When they are not able, the expense becomes a public matter. Children are admitted at the seventh instead of the sixth year. The course of study is nearly the same as that of the ordinary schools. They are also taught trades suitable to their condition. The schools seek not only to give general culture, but also to prepare them to take care of themselves. The institutions for deaf and dumb teach not only the subjects of the common-school course, but the children also learn to speak and understand the speech of others, even though they cannot hear.

In these institutions the classes must necessarily be

small, so that each child can receive a great amount of personal attention. Thus in institutions for the deaf and dumb the classes number from six to ten pupils. After they leave school there are societies that assist them to find employment, and in some cases furnish a permanent place of shelter.

The following table will furnish a general idea of what Prussia is doing for unfortunates of various kinds:

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE UNFORTUNATE.

Institutions.	No.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Teachers.
Blind	15	397	238	635	78
Deaf and Dumb.....	49	2348	1732	4080	414
Weak-minded.....	34	1185	763	1898	106
Houses of Refuge.....	141	5170	1728	6898	240
Orphan Asylums.....	72	3127	1959	5086	166

In each institution there are teachers who are employed only a part of their time; they are not included in these numbers.

Of the 49 institutions for deaf and dumb 9 are private, but they also are under the control of the state.

Thus the Prussian school system seeks to furnish every class of children with such training as will prepare them for the duties of life, and the better to bear whatever affliction may be laid upon them. The life of those who are unfortunate from birth, or from circumstances, is thus made easier to endure, and all that education can do to increase their happiness and make them capable of greater usefulness is done for them. The fate of those who are circumscribed by the lack of any of the senses is made lighter to bear, and great blessings are conferred upon a large number of children.

Schools for the unfortunate great blessings.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

GENERAL STATISTICS..

ALTHOUGH we have given many statistics from time to time, it will be of interest to examine certain general statistics. These are for the year 1891-2, published in 1893, the latest that have been published.

GENERAL SCHOOL STATISTICS FOR PRUSSIA.

Number of children in the common schools....	4,916,476
Of these about two thirds, or.....	3,107,701
were of evangelical faith.	
Number of schools.....	34,742
“ “ class-rooms.....	72,921
“ “ city schools.....	3,871
“ “ country schools.....	30,871
“ “ class-rooms in city schools.....	26,616
“ “ “ “ country schools	46,305
“ “ children in schools taught by one teacher.....	1,536,390
“ “ children in schools taught by more than one teacher.....	3,380,086
“ “ boys.....	2,467,558
“ “ girls.....	2,448,918
“ taught in mixed classes*.....	3,410,081
“ of regular teachers with fixed positions	71,731
“ “ assistants and teachers partially em- ployed.....	5,396

* By mixed classes is here meant those in which boys and girls are taught together. This is done in country districts, where separation is impracticable.

The confession of the teachers was as follows:

Evangelical..	{ Male.....	44,937
	{ Female.....	3,545
Catholic....	{ Male.....	17,959
	{ Female.....	4,890
Jewish.....	{ Male.....	336
	{ Female.....	58
Other faiths.	{ Male.....	5
	{ Female.....	1

Amount applied to common-school

purposes	146,225,312 marks
Of this for teachers' salaries.....	74,735,602 "
And for new buildings.....	21,820,194

	1871.	1891.
Per cent of schools with 1 teacher.....	74 $\frac{7}{10}$	64 $\frac{1}{10}$
" " " 2 teachers.....	14 $\frac{1}{10}$	18 $\frac{2}{10}$
" " " 3 or more teachers... ..	10 $\frac{2}{10}$	17 $\frac{1}{10}$

This shows a material improvement in the situation, and that the force of teachers in the small places has been increased, thereby reducing the number of pupils to each teacher.

In the thirty-five districts (not counting Berlin) into which the kingdom is divided the average number of pupils to each teacher, in 1891, was as follows:

1. In no district is the average under 50 in either city or country.

2.

IN CITIES.

In 14 districts the number was between.....	50 and 60
" 17 " " " " "	60 " 70
" 3 " " " " "	70 " 80
" 1 district " " " above.....	80

3.

IN THE COUNTRY.

In 5 districts the average was between.....	50 and 60
" 11 " " " " "	60 " 70
" 11 " " " " "	70 " 80
" 8 " " " " " above.....	80

As these figures apply to whole royal governmental districts, it will readily appear that in many schools there are more than 100 children under the care of one teacher.

Conditions in Posen. Thus, the district of Posen, with an average for its country schools of 95 pupils to a teacher, and its many small schools in isolated districts (5 with less than 21 pupils), has many schools in which the number of pupils is 120 or more. In 1886 there were 69 schools in the district of Posen with more than 150 children to one teacher, while in 1891 the number of such schools was reduced to 10: a great improvement indeed, but still leaving much to be wished for. Nor is Posen an isolated district in this respect, although the situation is worse there than in any other part of Germany, owing to the poverty of the people.

The "normal" number fixed by law in Prussia under **Eighty the normal number.** the present conditions is 80 in schools having one teacher, and 70 to each teacher in schools having more than one teacher.

These numbers by no means indicate the ultimate wish of educators, but they are all that can be asked for under present conditions. Most teachers recognize the fact that a much smaller number than the above is necessary for best results, but such reduction cannot be attained for some time to come. But with these numbers as a **More still to be wished for.** basis of attendance, about two thirds of the children of Prussia receive instruction under normal conditions. There is reason to take courage, however, as the per cent of those taught under normal conditions increased from $52\frac{44}{100}$ in 1882 to $66\frac{21}{100}$ in 1891 owing largely to the new pension law of 1884.

But another fact is to be noticed in this connection. Although there is thorough enforcement of the compulsory law which requires every child to attend school, there were only 3239 children out of nearly five millions in

1891 excluded from school for want of place to instruct them.

On the other hand, there are many schools that do not have the required normal number; indeed, there are 2135 small schools having less than twenty pupils. Where it has been possible to do so, two or more schools have been united in one; but there are still the above number which are situated in remote places which prevents their uniting with another school. Then, too, schools are sometimes small on account of confessional reasons, it being allowed to establish a school when there are twenty children of a certain confession. Still, schools are supported, the course of study carried out, regular attendance required throughout the whole year, just the same as in the largest cities. In such cases the state must contribute the largest part of the expense, as the inhabitants are generally poor.

The cost of all schools in 1891-92, in round numbers, was as follows:

Universities.....	14,117,000 marks
High schools.....	31,309,000 “
Common and middle schools.....	177,100,000 “
Schools for trades and special branches	10,000,000 “
	232,526,000 “

This was an increase of over 26 million marks in two years, and an average of 7.76 marks for each inhabitant of the realm. It comprised about one half of the total amount raised by direct taxation for community, church, school, district, and provincial purposes, and about one fourth of the amount raised for all state purposes. The state bears about four fifths of the expense of the universities, the other fifth being met by fees from the students, by income from endowments, etc.

The last general census of Prussia in 1890 showed that

there were 5,299,310 children of school age (6-14). Of these 93 per cent attended the public schools, $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent private schools, 3239 were prevented from attending school from lack of room, 10,041 on account of physical or mental incapacity, and 945 children, or about $\frac{2}{100}$ of one per cent, failed to attend school without sufficient cause for absence. This last fact is remarkable, as it shows unexcused absence for only two children out of ten thousand—an almost perfect result.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

OTHER GERMAN STATES.

It is not possible in the scope of this work to give a complete account of the school systems of all of the German states. Nor is it necessary, as that of Prussia, which we have so fully discussed, sufficiently illustrates the general plan of education in Germany for all of the purposes of this book. Besides, Prussia is the largest state of the confederacy, its population being about two thirds of that of the whole empire. Then, too, she was the first nation to establish a thorough system of education, and the other German states have accepted the models Prussia furnished and applied them to their own schools. While it must be admitted that some of the other states have surpassed Prussia in some respects, the fact still remains that she is on the whole still foremost among them in her schools.

Prussia furnishes the best model.

But a little space may properly be devoted to a comparison of the school systems of the other German states with that of Prussia. As in America, each state is entirely independent in its school management, though there is a closer bond of mutual agreement upon many school questions than exists between the American states.

Each state independent.

Upon the following points there is general agreement among all of the states of the German Empire:

1. *The state has a right to require regular attendance at school for every day that the school is in session.*

All of the states have entered into a compact to enforce this. The period of school attendance differs, in most

states being as in Prussia, 6-14; in Bavaria it is 6-13, and in some others it is 7-14; in Alsace and Lorraine boys are required to attend from 6-14 and girls 6-13. **Compulsory education general.** Where children at 14 have not attained the necessary mental and moral development they may be retained longer in school. Nearly all have the Fortbildungs schools, with a 2 or 3 years' course; but in some states attendance is compulsory, and the courses are thoroughly carried out, especially in Saxony, Bavaria, and Hessen.

2. *All states are divided into districts*, which are subdivided until the local school district is reached, over which a local school board is placed. The control and support of the schools rest largely with each community. The state, however, retains sufficient authority to secure proper obedience to its demands as to education.

3. *The subjects taught* are practically the same everywhere, namely, religion, grammar, reading, writing, arithmetic, beginning of geometry, drawing, history, geography, natural science, singing, gymnastics, and needlework. **Subjects taught.** In general religious instruction is under the oversight of pastors of the various confessions, they being often allowed to enter the schools and give instruction, especially in Catholic countries. There are the different kinds of schools, such as "elementary," "middle," and "higher," called often by different names, which meet the requirements of the various ranks of people.

4. *The support of the schools* rests largely with the community, the state rendering assistance so as not to make the local burden too heavy. The local board fix the amount they need for the support of their school, ratification by a higher authority being necessary. **How cost of schools is raised.** The expense is covered by endowments, income from school lands and school funds, tuition fees, local taxes, and state contribution. In most states

the disposition is to require no tuition fees in the common school, making it free; but some still continue this practice. In all cases tuition is required in schools higher than the common schools. In most states the teachers' salaries are better than those of Prussia, the state fixing a minimum salary below which the local board are not allowed to go—an end which the Prussian teachers have long been striving to bring about.

Salaries in
other states
better than
in Prussia.

5. *The qualifications of the teachers* are about the same in all of the states, and the certificates from one state are recognized in all other states. The necessity of special training for teachers, and the duty of the state to furnish it, are established principles in every part of the empire. The course requires six years' work after the common-school course (14 years of age), and should be completed at about the 20th year. There must be at least a year in the practice school, and after graduation the candidate must serve a term of probation before being permanently appointed. The seminaries are confessional in character, the sexes being taught separately.

Probation
required.

6. *The teachers are appointed* temporarily at first, but after a service of from two to six years they must pass a second examination, after which they are permanently appointed and are officers of the state. Their salaries advance with length of service. Pensions are granted in all of the states, the minimum varying from 25 to 40 per cent of their salary, and the maximum reaching from 75 to 100 per cent of the same.

Pensions.

Saxony, where teachers are generally best paid, begins with 33½ per cent of the salary, and reaches 80 per cent. In Hessen it finally reaches 100 per cent of the salary. The teachers throughout Germany must be pedagogically trained, cannot be removed except for cause, have a right to a salary sufficient for their needs, are entitled to a pension when incapacitated for work, and are state offi-

cials, who, by virtue of their office and character, command respect.

7. *The private schools* laid the foundations of the school systems in all of the states. They are under state oversight, and in some states parents who send their children to private schools are exempt from local school taxes. As the public schools become better the private schools flourish less and less. And yet they have a field which they will always occupy—that of institutions for the education of those who desire exclusiveness and are able to pay for it. Their retention is also to be desired as a means of introducing advanced methods of instruction. Their

Private schools should be retained. freedom affords them an opportunity for experimenting, which, on account of the rigid regulations of the public schools and the conservatism of the school authorities, is almost wholly impossible in the latter.

The following statistics will show in general what is being done for the education of the youth of the German Empire in 1891-2:

No. of public schools.....	56,563
No. of teachers fully employed.....	120,032
Of these 11 per cent were female, or....	13,750
No. of school-children.....	7,925,688
Total cost of the schools.....	242,400,000 m.

Of this the general state treasuries paid... 49,428,470 “

The population of the empire was about. 50,000,000

So that the number of children in the schools was about 16 per cent of the population. There was one school to 874 inhabitants, and the average number of pupils to each teacher was 66. The average cost per pupil was 30.58 marks.

While each German state manages its own school affairs and has its own peculiarities, all agree upon the general educational policy. Therefore work, whether done in the

common school, the teachers' seminary, the *Gymnasium*, or the university of one German state, is fully recognized in all other states throughout the empire, and children or students may change their school without loss of time. This is one of the most important lessons which America should learn from Germany and apply throughout all of the states of the Union.

**All agree
upon general
educational
policy.**

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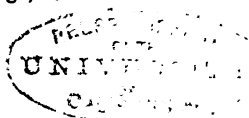
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